

MEMOIRS  
OF THE  
AMERICAN ACADEMY  
OF  
ARTS AND SCIENCES.

VOL. II.—PART I.



PRINTED AT BOSTON,  
BY ISAIAH THOMAS AND EBENEZER T. ANDREWS,  
FAUST'S STATUE, NO. 45, NEWBURY STREET.

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M E M O I R S

OF THE

AMERICAN ACADEMY

OF ARTS AND SCIENCES

OF THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF ARTS AND SCIENCES  
HOLDING ANNUAL MEETINGS AT HARVARD UNIVERSITY  
IN THE CITY OF CAMBRIDGE, MASSACHUSETTS  
PUBLISHED BY THE ACADEMY  
AT THE PRESS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE  
1868



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## ADVERTISEMENT.

TO accommodate the purchaser ; and to invite communications, the Academy has thought it expedient to publish its Memoirs in the present form. In the choice of papers, the Committee, to whom the selection was entrusted, have studied utility, variety, and entertainment. As communications increase, new publications will appear. And it is to be hoped, that a regular series of numbers will call the attention to philosophical inquiries ; and shew, that the Academy does not overlook the end of its institution. The reader will remember, that the Society is not responsible for any communications, which may be selected and published. They must stand or fall by their own merit. The mathematician must answer for his own reasonings, the philosopher for his experiments, and the theorist for his conjectures.

CONTENTS

A. Essay on the Law of Probability, by J. Bernoulli.  
The Theory of the Game of Chance, by J. Bernoulli.  
The Law of Large Numbers, by J. Bernoulli.  
The Theory of the Game of Chance, by J. Bernoulli.

MATHEMATICAL PHILOSOPHY, by J. Bernoulli.  
I. The Theory of the Game of Chance, by J. Bernoulli.  
II. The Law of Large Numbers, by J. Bernoulli.  
III. The Theory of the Game of Chance, by J. Bernoulli.  
IV. The Law of Large Numbers, by J. Bernoulli.  
V. The Theory of the Game of Chance, by J. Bernoulli.  
VI. The Law of Large Numbers, by J. Bernoulli.  
VII. The Theory of the Game of Chance, by J. Bernoulli.  
VIII. The Law of Large Numbers, by J. Bernoulli.  
IX. The Theory of the Game of Chance, by J. Bernoulli.  
X. The Law of Large Numbers, by J. Bernoulli.  
XI. The Theory of the Game of Chance, by J. Bernoulli.  
XII. The Law of Large Numbers, by J. Bernoulli.  
XIII. The Theory of the Game of Chance, by J. Bernoulli.  
XIV. The Law of Large Numbers, by J. Bernoulli.  
XV. The Theory of the Game of Chance, by J. Bernoulli.  
XVI. The Law of Large Numbers, by J. Bernoulli.  
XVII. The Theory of the Game of Chance, by J. Bernoulli.  
XVIII. The Law of Large Numbers, by J. Bernoulli.  
XIX. The Theory of the Game of Chance, by J. Bernoulli.  
XX. The Law of Large Numbers, by J. Bernoulli.

PHYSICAL PAPERS

I. On the Nature of Light, by J. Bernoulli.  
II. On the Nature of Sound, by J. Bernoulli.  
III. On the Nature of Heat, by J. Bernoulli.  
IV. On the Nature of Electricity, by J. Bernoulli.  
V. On the Nature of Magnetism, by J. Bernoulli.  
VI. On the Nature of Gravity, by J. Bernoulli.  
VII. On the Nature of the Earth, by J. Bernoulli.  
VIII. On the Nature of the Sky, by J. Bernoulli.  
IX. On the Nature of the Universe, by J. Bernoulli.  
X. On the Nature of the Human Mind, by J. Bernoulli.

## C O N T E N T S.

*AN Eulogy on the Hon. JAMES BOWDOIN, Esq. L. L. D. late President of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences Who died at Boston, November 6, A. D. 1790. Delivered before the Society, January 26, 1791. By JOHN LOWELL, one of the Counsellors of the Academy.*

### MATHEMATICAL AND ASTRONOMICAL PAPERS.

- |   | Page. |
|---|-------|
| I. <i>Geometrical Methods of finding any required Series of Mean Proportionals between given Extremes. By JAMES WINTHROP, Esq. F. A. A.</i>   | 9     |
| II. <i>A Rule for Trisecting Angles geometrically. By JAMES WINTHROP, Esq. F. A. A.</i>   | 14    |
| III. <i>Rules for Resolving two Cases in Oblique Spherical Trigonometry. By WILLIAM CROSSWELL, A. M. Teacher of Navigation.</i>   | 18    |
| IV. <i>Observations of an Annular Eclipse of the Sun, at Cambridge, April 3d, 1791. By SAMUEL WEBBER, A. M. F. A. A. Hollis Professor of Mathematicks and Philosophy in the University at Cambridge.</i>                  | 20    |
| V. <i>Observations of the Transit of Mercury over the Sun's Disc, November 5th, 1789. By the Rev. JOSEPH WILLARD, D. D. President of the University, and Vice President of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.</i> | 22    |

### PHYSICAL PAPERS.

- |  |    |
|--|----|
| I. <i>Observations on Prismatic Colours. By Dr. SAMUEL TENNEY, of Exeter, F. A. A.</i> | 37 |
| II. <i>An</i>  |    |

II. <i>An Account of a Number of Medicinal Springs at Saratoga, in the State of New-York. By Dr. SAMUEL TENNY.</i>	Page. 43
III. <i>Conjectures of the Natural Causes of the North West Winds being Colder, and more frequent in the Winter in New-England, than in the same Degrees of Latitude in Europe. By SAMUEL HALE, Esq. of Portsmouth, F. A. A.</i>	61
IV. <i>An Account of Frogs found in the Earth; in a Letter to the Rev. NEHEMIAH WILLIAMS. By Major SAMUEL HITCHCOCK.</i>	63
V. <i>An Estimate of the Heat and Cold of the American Atmosphere beyond the European, in the same Parallel of Latitude: To which are added, some Thoughts on the Causes of this Excess. By EDWARD A. HOLYOKE, M. D. F. A. A.</i>	65
VI. <i>A Table of Results, from a Course of Observations made on the Heat of the Atmosphere by Fahrenheit's Thermometer, in the years 1786, 1787, 1788, 1789, 1790, 1791, and 1792, at Salem in Massachusetts. By EDWARD A. HOLYOKE, M. D. F. A. A.</i>	89
VII. <i>A Letter on the Retreat of Swallows in Winter. From the Rev. Mr. PACKARD.</i>	93
VIII. <i>A Letter on the Retreat of Swallows, and the Torpid State of certain Animals, in Winter. From SEVERYN J. BRUYN, Esq.</i>	96
IX. <i>A Practical Essay on Raising Apple Trees, and Making Cider. By Mr. A. CROCKER, of Somerset, England.</i>	100

X. Meteorological

# CONTENTS.

vii

X. Meteorological Observations made at Montreal, Canada, North America.	Page. 113
XI. Discoveries made in the Western Country. By Gen- eral PARSONS.	119
XII. Barometrical Observations and Remarks, made during a Tour to Lake Champlain. By JAMES WINTHROP, Esq. F. A. A.	127
XIII. A Table shewing the Probability of the Duration, the Decrement, and the Expectation of Life, in the States of Massachusetts and New-Hampshire. By EDWARD WIGGLESWORTH, D. D. F. A. A.	131
XIV. An Account of a Curious and Singular Appearance of the Aurora Borealis on the 27th of March, 1781. By CALEB GANNETT, Esq. F. A. A.	136
XV. Letter on the Darknefs in Canada, in October 1785. From the Hon. WILLIAM HEATH, Esq. F. A. A.	139
XVI. Observations on Trees, as Conductors of Lightning. By Mr. HUGH MAXWELL.	143
XVII. Experiments in Electricity. By Mr JOHN VINALL.	144
XVIII. Observations on the Effects of Light on Vegetation. By the Hon. JAMES WARREN, Esq. F. A. A.	146
XIX. A Letter concerning Gay Head. From the Rev. SAMUEL WEST, D. D. F. A. A.	147
XX. Description of Gay Head. By the Hon. WILLIAM BAYLIES, Esq. F. A. A.	150
XXI. List of Forest and other Trees, N. W. of the River Ohio. By WINTHROP SARGENT, Esq.	156
XXII. Account of a Skeleton of a Large Animal, found near Hudson's River. By the Rev. ROBERT ANNAN.	160
XXIII. A	

XXIII. <i>A Description of a Horn or Bone, lately found in the River Chemung, or Tyoga, a Western Branch of the Susquehanna, about twelve Miles from Tyoga Point. Communicated by the Hon. TIMOTHY EDWARDS, of Stockbridge, Esq. in a Letter to the Rev. JOSEPH WILLARD, D. D.</i>	Page. 164
XXIV. <i>Observations on the Manufacture of Pot Ash. By AARON DEXTER, M. D. F. A. A.</i>	165
XXV. <i>Second Essay on the Boston Pump Waters. By M. FERON.</i>	170
XXVI. <i>On the Theory of Vegetation. By NOAH WEBSTER, JUN. Esq.</i>	178

## M E D I C A L P A P E R S.

I. <i>An Account of an Uncommon Case of Emphysema; and of an external Abscess whose Contents were discharged by coughing. By EDWARD AUGUSTUS HOLYOKE, M. D. F. A. A.</i>	187
II. <i>Account of a Locked Jaw. By AARON DEXTER, M. D. F. A. A.</i>	191

## E R R A T A.

Page 21, line 8, from bottom, for *Annulus*, read *Annular*.—Page 70, bottom line, for *Obseffor*, read *Obseffos*.—Page 87, line 1st, for *heated*, read *treated*.—Page 88, 10th column, against *Mons*, read 13, 7.

A N  
E U L O G Y,  
O N

The Honourable JAMES BOWDOIN, Esq. L. L. D.

LATE PRESIDENT OF THE  
AMERICAN ACADEMY of ARTS and SCIENCES.

Who died at *BOSTON*, NOVEMBER 6, A. D. 1790.

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Delivered before the SOCIETY, *January 26, 1791,*

BY JOHN LOWELL,  
One of the COUNSELLORS of the ACADEMY.

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PRINTED at *BOSTON*,  
By ISAIAH THOMAS and EBENEZER T. ANDREWS,  
At FAUST'S STATUE, No. 45, *Newbury Street*.

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*At a Meeting of the AMERICAN ACADEMY of Arts and Sciences,  
January 26, 1791.*

VOTED,

THAT Dr. CHARLES JARVIS, the Rev. JEREMY BELKNAP, and  
EBENEZER STORER, Esq. be a Committee to return the thanks of the  
ACADEMY to the Hon. JOHN LOWELL, Esq. for his EULOGY on  
their late PRESIDENT, and to request a copy of the same for the press.

ATTEST,

SAMUEL WEBBER,

*Recording Secretary.*



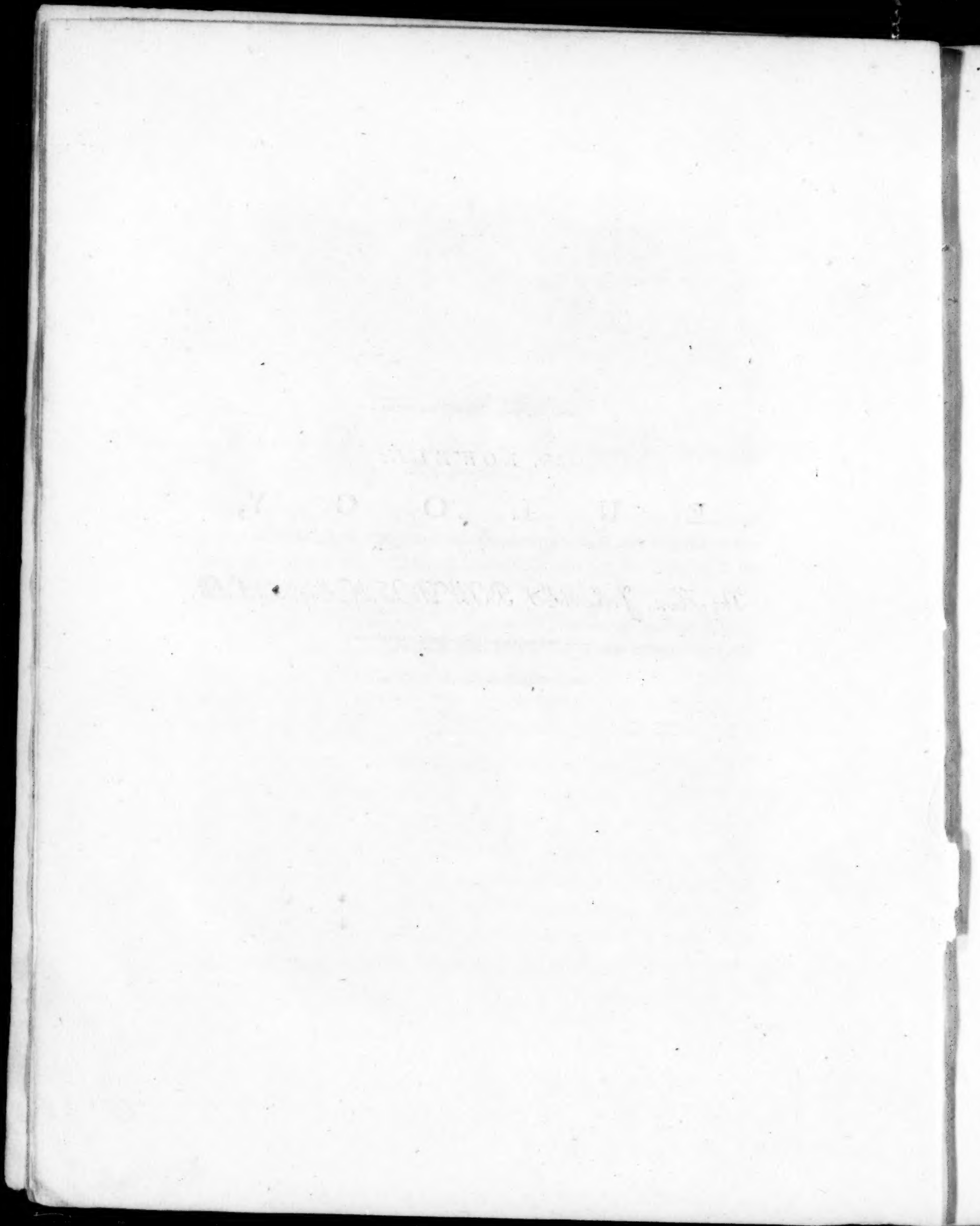
Mr. LOWELL's

E U L O G Y,

ON

*The Hon. JAMES BOWDOIN, Esq. L.L.D.*







MR. LOWELL'S

E U L O G Y,  
O N

The Hon. *JAMES BOWDOIN*, Esquire.

Late PRESIDENT of the AMERICAN ACADEMY of  
ARTS and SCIENCES.

Who died at BOSTON, NOVEMBER 6th, A. D. 1790.



MR. VICE PRESIDENT, AND  
GENTLEMEN OF THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF ARTS AND SCIENCES,

TO suspend for a while, the ordinary pursuits of life, whether of an active or contemplative nature—to trace the path of the great, the virtuous, and the wise, through all their exertions for the benefit of mankind—and to portray their characters as an example to the world—has been the practice of all ages—and is certainly a rational, an useful, and a philosophic employment. Such a task, your too partial sentiments have assigned me this day.

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WE cannot but recollect, that once before we have been assembled in this august place—when, from this desk, our respected and beloved President, in strains of wisdom, urged us to the honorable employment of contributing to the advantage of our country, by useful studies, and important literary researches. We heard him with attention : We venerated him as our Patron : We respected him as a Philosopher and a Man. But he is now no more ! and it is in obedience to your commands, that I have this day undertaken, from the same place, the pleasing though melancholy task of pronouncing his Eulogy.

IT may be pertinent on this occasion to observe, that it has been usual for such societies, in other countries, on the death of those members who have been distinguished for their talents and their virtues, to direct some of their fellows to delineate their characters ; not in the strains of undeserved panegyric, nor in the form of tumid declamation, but in the plainer garb of truth : Such, I understand to be your expectations from me on this occasion. I am not therefore at liberty to exercise the talents of an orator, if I possess them, but am restrained by the more rigid academic rules. Let me then rest on your candor, while I attempt a sketch of the life of Mr. BOWDOIN, and of those incidents, which reflect honor on his memory.

THE ancestors of our President were inhabitants of *Rockelle*, in France : They were of honorable descent, and possessed a fair inheritance there, and were of that body of Protestants, who for a long time resisted the attempts of the tyrants of that country to enslave them, and to compel them against their consciences to abandon

abandon their religion. His father, in the year 1686, on the persecution which followed the revocation of the edict of *Nantz*, left his native country, and facing poverty and danger, fled to America, as the asylum of liberty, and in the year 1688, settled in the town of *Boston* : By his industry, economy and integrity, he accumulated a very ample fortune ; and possessed so much of the esteem and respect of his fellow citizens, that he was chosen a member of the Council, for several years before his death.

OUR President was born at *Boston*, August 7th, 1726, and having made the usual progress in scholastic and collegiate studies, was admitted to his degree of Bachelor of Arts, at *Harvard College*, A. D. 1745, and of Master of Arts, A. D. 1748. During this period he was distinguished by the decency of his behaviour, the complacency of his manners, the regularity of his conduct, and by his solicitude to acquire useful knowledge, which excited him to industry and attention, and laid the foundation for that respect, which he long maintained in the literary world. It does not appear, that he possessed that extraordinary brilliancy of genius, which entitled him to be ranked amongst those who have astonished the world by the force of their imaginations, or the uncommon power of their natural abilities : Indeed such characters are rarely to be found, and when they exist, are usually deficient in that solidity of judgment which is necessary to restrain the extravagance of their ideas, and their romantic and impious principles, and eccentric conduct, often conduce more to the injury of the world, than the brightness of their conceptions to its benefit. Our deceased friend possessed the more useful talents of  
found.

found good sense, and clearness of discernment, which, with an improved mind, cultivated with assiduity, and enriched by learning, enabled him in all circumstances of life to decide with propriety.

HE had scarcely attained to the age of twenty one years, when by the death of his father, he found himself in possession of a great estate : This event was a trial of his virtue ; for however anxiously most men labour to accumulate riches for their children, it is a truth, founded on the principles of reason, and confirmed by observation, that they commit to their hands a dangerous cup, with which they are more frequently intoxicated and debauched, than rendered happy or useful to the world : But Mr. BOWDOIN had already acquired too fixed a character, to be drawn aside from his rational pursuits, or diverted into the paths of dissipation : He received the bounty of providence with moderation, and used its gifts without abusing them : This accession of property, placing him in easy and independent circumstances, he formed an early connection with a respectable family, which happily continued during his life, and afforded him that solace and domestic enjoyment, which can alone give a zest to the researches of the studious, and render pleasing the toilsome enterprizes of the laborious. In his juvenile days he indulged himself in sporting in the fields of *Parnassus* ; but he never suffered his muse to lead him astray from the paths of decency and virtue. These lighter performances were directed to make the heart better, and to exhibit to his young friends, morality and religion in a pleasing garb. He gave one of them to the world, under the title of "*A Paraphrase of the Economy of Human*

*Human Life.*" But his genius and taste led him more frequently to fix his attention on the closer studies of natural and moral philosophy, ethics, politics, and general jurisprudence.

IN the year 1753, at the age of twenty-seven, he was chosen a representative for the town of *Boston*. The uncommon maturity of his judgment, was evidenced by this choice, as few persons have been introduced into the legislature, from the *capital*, at so early an age.

ABOUT this time he formed and fixed his friendship with those persons in this and the neighbouring governments, who for their classic taste, liberal sentiments, attachment to literature and the cause of freedom, were eminently distinguished : A FRANKLIN, a WINTHROP, a PRATT, an OTIS, a COOPER, a MAYHEW, and a THACHER, were in this number, besides other characters not less deserving, who still survive. Many letters on literary subjects, and some of them on deep philosophical questions, passed between him and the great American philosopher lately deceased, which shew the real talents of both in those sciences, and the esteem and respect which they entertained for each other.

IN the year 1757, he was elected a member of the Council, and continued to be annually chosen until the year 1769, when the choice was negatived by Governor *Bernard*. It is necessary to give a summary of the state of politics at that time, to account for this circumstance. The Ministry and Parliament of Great-Britain, finding the revenue of the kingdom insufficient to discharge the interest of the national debt, together with the annual expenses of government, enormously increased by unmerited pen-  

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sions, formed a plan for taxing the Colonies towards the supply of their treasury ; probably hoping, that by means of the officers necessary to collect the taxes, they should create and secure an extensive influence here, which would favor their design of prolonging our dependence upon them, and on these, and other subordinate principles, they passed the stamp act, the declaratory act, and other acts, calculated as they thought, to accomplish their designs. The Colonies were alarmed ; they petitioned and remonstrated without effect ; they obstructed in different ways the execution of these acts. The British ministry attempted to coerce them to obedience ; and introduced a body of soldiers for that purpose. During these times, Mr BOWDOIN was in the Council, and vigorously opposed all the measures devised to produce compliance : His heart was warmed ; and his head and pen, as well as his tongue, employed in the cause of his country : As a philosopher and christian, he was a lover of peace, but he did not inherit from his ancestors, nor had he imbibed from any other source, the principles of passive obedience and non-resistance. He was in every sense a patriot : He connected himself with those who were determined not to be slaves : It was in his power to have made any terms for himself, if he could have deserted his principles ; but firm and incorruptible, he put every thing at hazard ; this occasioned the measure taken by Governor *Bernard*. But the esteem of his fellow-citizens, and their opinion of his talents and integrity, caused them to place him in the House of Representatives at the next election. When Governor *Hutchinson* succeeded Governor *Bernard*, Mr. BOWDOIN was again elected into the Council, and the choice was approved by the Governor ; who thought  
it

it necessary however, to apologize to the ministry for this step, by informing them, "That Mr. Bowdoin's opposition would be less injurious in the Council, than in the House of Representatives." The evidence derived from these facts is of the highest nature; and irresistably prove Mr. Bowdoin's unequivocal attachment to the rights of his country.

WHEN the town of *Boston* was a garrison, he left his home, and became a fugitive with his brethren. He was elected a member the first American Congress, but did not accept the appointment. This measure has in a later period been misrepresented by those who wished to diminish his influence; but it was the effect of his firmness and independence of spirit: Conscious of his own rectitude, and daring to face calumny as well as the resentment of the British government, he ventured to decline the trust. He found his health, which through life had been tender, too feeble for such an undertaking, in a climate calculated to aggravate his complaints. But did he temporize? Did he leave his country, or its enemies, to doubt of his future conduct? So far from this, that while the British ministry exercised the pageantry of civil government within the province, Mr. Bowdoin took his station at the head of the Council, who were exercising the supreme executive, and one branch of the legislative authority, and thereby exposed himself to punishment for this conspicuous *overt* act of treason. Through all periods of the war, which was now begun, and which ended with the emancipation of America from the yoke of Great-Britain, he exerted all his talents and devoted himself to the service of his country.

IN the year 1779, the people of Massachusetts, who had for several years, felt the inconvenience of a mutilated government, which was only the remains of that which had been established by the charter, called a convention for the purpose of forming a new constitution for the state : To this convention were returned, from all parts of the commonwealth, as great a number of men of learning, talents, and patriotism, as had ever been assembled here at any earlier period. Mr. BOWDOIN, a delegate from *Boston*, was elected their president : The coolness of their debates, the result of their deliberations, and the constitution which they recommended, confirmed the sentiments which had been anticipated from their character. In this station, Mr. BOWDOIN conducted with a dignified propriety. Patience, attention, candor, and impartiality, the constant attendants of great and honest minds, were qualities which he daily exercised. It is owing to the hints which he occasionally gave, and the part which he took with the committee, who framed the plan, that some of the most admired sections in the constitution of this State appear in their present form : This assembly of wise men carried home with them such impressions of his character, as an able and virtuous statesman, that they retained the highest esteem and respect for him till his death.

IN the month of May, 1780, the act which gives a charter of incorporation to the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, passed the legislature. As our ancestors, in the very infancy of their settlements, convinced that an enlightened people must necessarily be free, established the school at *Newton*, which has since risen to be the university at *Cambridge* ; so our political fathers,

thers, impressed with the same liberal principle, and connecting in their views knowledge and freedom, although the country was then engaged in a distressing war, the most important to the liberties of mankind, which was ever undertaken, instituted this society. Mr. BOWDOIN was unanimously chosen our PRESIDENT, and has been annually reelected to the same office. It is in this station, that he has been more nearly in our view. It is in this character that we have considered him as our patron, philosopher, and friend. Active in procuring our institution, and persevering in his attention to its interest, he not only promoted our establishment by his influence, but contributed by his literary labours to fill up our design. With this view he wrote and delivered the philosophical discourse, which introduces the first volume of our memoirs; in which are marked his acquaintance with literary subjects, and his ardent desire to advance the objects for which we were incorporated. Not long after he communicated three memoirs, written by himself. In the first, were observations upon an hypothesis, for solving the phenomena of light which Dr. FRANKLIN had raised in opposition to the theory of Sir ISAAC NEWTON. In this, Mr. BOWDOIN, with ingenious perspicuity, and with that friendly freedom which great and candid men use towards each other, examines the hypothesis of Dr. FRANKLIN, and elucidates and confirms that of Sir ISAAC NEWTON, leaving this astonishing genius in possession of his title of the "Father of the Theory of Light," without diminishing the just claims of the American to the discovery of the Electric system, and the means of guarding against its surprizing effects. The second and third memoirs, are also on the subject of light, and are an attempt, by a new theory, to account for the

manner in which the waste of matter in the sun and fixed stars, by the constant efflux of light from them, is repaired, and to account for certain luminous phenomena in the heavens, which have been hitherto unsatisfactorily explained. These memoirs afford conclusive evidence that Mr. BOWDOIN was deeply conversant in the principles of natural philosophy ; and though the latter memoir suggests a theory which may be liable to some objections, yet the novelty of it, and the ingenious manner in which he has considered it, discovers an inquisitive mind, and a boldness of ideas, beyond those, who, though learned in the knowledge of others, are too feeble to venture on new and unexplored paths of science. If any should be inclined to believe that this system is too visionary, let them recollect, that some of the greatest men the world has produced have fallen into a like error, and that even a BACON, a DESCARTES, a WHISTON, and a BURNET, among the moderns, and a PLATO, a PLINY, and an ARISTOTLE, among the ancients, have advanced theories, which though since found to be defective, have given hints to succeeding philosophers, which have led to some of the most useful and important discoveries that have illuminated and improved the world. Mr. BOWDOIN did not rest here in his endeavours to serve the society ; he gave them pecuniary aid in his life time, and bequeathed them by his last will a sum of money, and his large and valuable library.

HE received many letters and personal applications from persons ingenious in mechanic arts, and in plans for extending the manufactures of our country ; and the manner in which they were attended to, and encouraged, led them to consider him in an eminent degree as their patron and friend.

THROUGH

THROUGH a large portion of his life, he was, by his station, an overseer of Harvard College, and in the year 1779, he was chosen a fellow of the corporation of that University, in which office he continued until the year 1786, when he resigned it on account of his more public engagements. In the class of his most delectable cares, the exercise of his duties in this office may be considered as standing among the highest. He loved the society; he was fond on all occasions of avowing his relation to it as his literary parent: And as a friend to his country and the interests of religion and learning, he viewed it in a light still more important: He was unceasing in his efforts to serve it, and he contributed by very handsome donations during his life, to render the means of instruction there more useful; and established by his will, a fund for rewarding those students who should be distinguished by their merit.

IN the year 1785, Mr. BOWDOIN was chosen Governor of the Commonwealth of *Massachusetts*: while he received honor from this exalted station, he added to it dignity. No part of the duties of his administration were neglected or carelessly performed. In his correspondencies with the supreme council of the then confederated states, and with those of each of them, he was regular and punctual. No act or resolve of the legislature received his approbation until he had attained a thorough knowledge of its object—comprehended the design of its provisions, and was on the whole satisfied of its salutary effects. In his appointments to offices of civil trust, he was careful and judicious, nor ever prostituted this important and delicate confidence, with which he was entrusted by the constitution, by committing the care of the property,

property, the lives, the reputation, and the liberty of the citizens to unworthy hands. Although he was by nature, and by his habits, less fitted for military duties, than for those of civil life; yet his arrangements of the militia gave universal satisfaction. Most of the independent corps in the town of *Boston*, and many in other parts of the state, which have been distinguished for their brilliant and soldierlike appearance, were formed under his administration, and he had the pleasure while in office to see the militia as respectable as any that have appeared in this, or perhaps in any country. Respectable foreigners, and citizens of other states, while they were received with a proper attention, which gratified their feelings, were impressed with a respect that dignified the government, as well as the Governor.

HE was again placed in the chair in the year 1786, during which year, a cloud arose with so threatening an aspect to the freedom of America, as called for the exertions of all his abilities to dissipate. The insurrection in this state, was an occurrence so interesting at the time, so important in its political effects, and so memorable in the history of this country, that it must engage our attention for a few moments, especially as the character of Mr. BOWDOIN was greatly developed by the part which he acted upon the occasion. Many causes concurred to produce this disturbance: a long war from which this country had but just emerged, had left on the people a heavy debt, which was felt with greater weight, as the taxes had been suffered for some years to accumulate, by the incautious remittances in the collection of them: A depreciating paper currency had thrown many honest people into difficult circumstances: These were aggravated by their seeing

ing some of their more artful neighbors suddenly possessed of the property which they had lost, by their confidence in a medium, the operations of which they did not understand. Creditors had been cautious in calling for their debts, while the laws had countenanced debtors in offering them an iniquitous compensation. When government therefore began to exert itself to enforce the collection of taxes, and the courts of law were open to do justice to creditors, a few artful men, of desperate fortunes, and wicked hearts, conceived the design of inciting the people, who were without information of the true state of affairs, to oppose the courts of law, and even to rise in arms to obstruct them. Many people of honest intentions, from whom their views were concealed, were induced to give them countenance, without considering the consequences, which must inevitably follow a state of anarchy, in which the laws, and the regular administration of justice, must be suspended. These combinations were extensive and formidable, and perhaps there was a time in which it was uncertain, whether even a majority of the people were not at least in a disposition not to *oppose* the progress of insurgency. Like causes of uneasiness, in a greater or less degree, existed in most of the confederated states : The contagion appeared to spread, and unless the progress of their success had been suddenly arrested, the flame which was already kindled, would probably have caught the combustibles scattered throughout the states, and have raged with irresistible fury. Mr. BOWDOIN was at this time our Governor—in a situation to try the fortitude and resources of any man. Many palliatives were proposed—He was induced for a time to listen to them, and to give his assent to an act, which for

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a moment

a moment he was persuaded to believe, might relieve them from some of their pressing difficulties, and extinguish the flame. This measure gave pain to some of his best friends. But the views of the leaders in the insurrection, and their secret abettors, went further than their professions, and it became necessary to oppose their progress with force. The majority of his council were found ready to support him, in the most efficient measures. Money, the sinews of war, was wanting—the treasury was empty—but by a meritorious exertion of the merchants, and other gentlemen of property, in which Mr. Bowdoin himself set an honorable example, ample funds were immediately provided. The militia was called forth, and a gentleman put at their head, whose prudence and abilities, as well as courage, had been often proved. By his spirited exertions, and those of the officers and militia under his command, difficulties apparently insurmountable were overcome. By rapid marches, in the most inclement season, over mountains of snow, almost as difficult to pass as the Alps to the General of *Carthage*, the insurgents and their leaders were panic struck, and fled with precipitancy; and, without the effusion of blood, the rebellion was crushed, and peace and safety restored to the state. The general orders issued by the Governor, shew at once his firmness and circumspection, and his tender concern for the lives and rights not only of the innocent and less blameable citizens, but even of those in an high degree criminal. When we take a retrospective view of this scene, and find such numbers of people, who had so recently been united in resisting the dangers of tyranny; who appeared to understand *so well* the rights of mankind, and the boundaries of civil liberty which should

should not be transgressed—we are *astonished* that principles should have been so soon imbibed, and a conduct adopted, which brought into such imminent hazard, all they could hold dear, and for which they had so virtuously and successfully contended—We shudder at the idea, that the fair fabric of American liberty and independence, which they had erected, and in which they had placed the altar of freedom, and where was then burning the purest incense, was at once on the point of being overthrown, the flame extinguished, and the dome of tyranny and despotism, the successors of anarchy, fixed on its ruins. But the extremes of good and evil are often marked by imperceptible lines. In this occurrence we may, without a fanciful imagination, trace one of the most operative causes, which gave birth and energy to that system of union, which has since cemented, and, we trust, indissolubly, the freemen of America.

A NUMBER of merchants, and other gentlemen of property, in the year 1784, having procured a charter for a Bank, considered Mr. BOWDOIN, as the person most likely to give them credit, and assure the world of their honor and stability, and placed him at their head as their President.

A SOCIETY afterwards formed under the name of the *Humane Society*, for purposes friendly to humanity, followed their example and gave him the same rank among them.

MR. BOWDOIN's reputation as a man of science and virtue, was not confined to the United States of America. Distinguished honors were conferred on him by many learned societies. He was made L. L. D. by the universities of *Cambridge, Philadelphia,*

*phia*, and *Edinburgh*; Fellow of the Royal Society of *London*; Fellow of the Society of Arts, Manufactures and Commerce of *London*; and he maintained through life an extensive correspondence with men of taste and learning.

HIS last public appearance in a political character, was in the Convention of this state, appointed in the year 1788, to consider of the Constitution of the United States. On this, as on a former occasion of like nature, but of less importance, many gentlemen, who, from their private employments and love of retirement, had declined engaging in the busy scenes of politicks, assembled to deliberate on a plan of government, which might for many generations affect the liberty and happiness of the citizens of America. In this assembly, so respectable for the great and virtuous characters which composed it, Mr. BOWDOIN appeared as a Representative for his native town. Here he again became a strenuous advocate for a form of government, calculated as he conceived, to produce that security, which is the ultimate desideratum in all social compacts, and which security depends on the introduction of such checks, as may at all times balance the dangers, which arise to true freedom, from the occasional preponderancy of aristocratic or democratic principles. Here he reasoned with pertinent force, and his speech on the occasion, printed among the debates of that convention, demonstrates his thorough acquaintance with the principles of government, and his ability to support them. He gave his voice for the adoption of the constitution, not because he thought it merely preferable to the feeble structure of the confederation, or that the salutary provisions of it overbalance those which were exceptionable; but from a full conviction,  
that

that it was probably one of the best, that human wisdom could devise.

THE character of Mr. Bowdoin has hitherto been principally considered in those points of view, in which he has been placed by his public stations. But the history of his private life is no less honorable to himself, nor less useful and instructive to the world. He early established for himself a system of order, which enabled him through a life, greatly conversant with public affairs, to possess a dignified leisure. He was never unduly pressed for time, to perform all his duties ; to gratify the bent of his speculative taste for literary pursuits ; or to solace himself in his rational amusements with his domestic connections. The same order enabled him so to conduct his property as to avoid confusion and waste, and to be ever ready to apply it to the purposes of hospitality and beneficence.

HE was an open and unreserved professor of the christian religion, and in the form usually practised in this country. He was not ostentatious, enthusiastic, or intolerant ; but it was on religion as the firmest basis, that he rested all his hopes, and from which he derived his consolation. He was a friend to the clergy, *not only* of his own religious denomination, but of all others. He received them with courtesy ; he encouraged them with his countenance, and he frequently relieved their pecuniary difficulties. They repaid him with affection ; and they have shown a respect for his memory by the affliction which they unaffectedly exhibit at his death.

I MIGHT with the strictest truth, point out many other excellent traits in his character, but to those who knew him, their own knowledge will supply the deficiency ; and with those who did not, I might incur the censure of deviating from the rules prescribed me. It may be said that our country has produced many men of as much genius ; many men of as much learning and knowledge ; many of as much zeal for the liberties of their country, and many of as great piety and virtue. But, is it not rare indeed, to find those in whom they have all combined, and been adorned with his other accomplishments ?

WE now approach to that scene, in which all men must at last act. The wise, and the foolish ; the learned, and the ignorant ; statesmen, and men in humble life, are here placed on a level ; yet it is in that scene, in which, whatever characters they have borne, or have assumed, the mask, if any they have worn, must drop forever. Mr. BOWDOIN, still in the possession of the undebilitated powers of his mind, and when his friends promised themselves much from his experience and example, was attacked by a most painful and fatal disorder, under which he lived several months, but in the full view of approaching death. Let us draw near his couch : We shall there see him suffering the most excruciating pain ; but sustaining it with fortitude ; revising that disposition of his temporal affairs, which his love of order, had induced him to make in health ; his heart overflowing with gratitude for the blessings he had enjoyed ; willing to live, but not afraid to die ; his hopes lively and animated ; not supported by any visionary dreams of enthusiasm, but by the rational belief of the religion

religion he had professed, and on the retrospect of a life, which had been conducted by its principles, and at last quitting it like a philosopher and christian.

HE died on the sixth day of *November, 1790*. By his will he gave to the Religious Society with whom he was connected, and to their Minister, as well as to the University at Cambridge and to this Academy, very handsome legacies.

THE general anxiety which had for some weeks been manifested by an inquisitive solicitude for his safety, was now changed into expressions of sorrow at his death.

GREAT and respectable was the concourse which attended his funeral—every species of occupation was suspended—all ranks and orders of men—the clergy and the laity—the magistrate and the citizen—men of leisure and men of business—testified their affection and respect, by joining in the solemn procession—and crowds of spectators lined the streets through which it passed—while an uncommon silence and order every where marked the deepness of their sorrow. And can we, my brethren, part with our friend, our brother, and our head, without regret? Can we recollect, without emotion, the many pleasing and instructive hours we have passed with him, in his closet, in our meetings, and at his social board? Can we forget his virtues? or can we, without the most pungent sorrow, reflect that the heart which they once filled, now ceases to beat? and the eye through which their emanations were conveyed, is closed forever? Is it less philosophical to indulge the tear, that flows from those principles of sympathy

sympathy which expand and elevate the heart, and dignify the man, than to affect a cold apathy which nature, or its author, has never given him? No—let us feel; but submit—let us deeply engrave on our minds the impressions of his character, and animated by his virtues, imitate his example.



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# M E M O I R S, &c.

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## P A R T I.

### MATHEMATICAL AND ASTRONOMICAL PAPERS.

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I. *Geometrical Methods of finding any required Series of Mean Proportionals between given Extremes, by JAMES WINTHROP, Esq. F. A. A.*

THE duplication of the cube has long been a desideratum in Geometry, and has been considered as one of the greatest questions in that science. To enhance its importance, its origin has been traced to the Oracle of Delphos. Hence it is frequently called the Delphick question. It is said, that when a pestilence raged in Athens, application was made to Apollo for information of the means, by which the anger of the Deity might be appeased. The God directed the inquirers to double the contents of his cubical altar, without changing its form. He was, however, mistaken in his prescription; for the plague ceased, though the condition was not complied with. The writer of the present paper therefore, requests the candour of this learned assembly, whilst he attempts to apply to this problem, principles universally received.

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It is a well known property of proportionality, that if a series of four continued proportionals be taken, the first term will be to the fourth, as the cube of the first is to the cube of the second. The question therefore has been made to change ground ; and the object has been, to find two geometrical proportionals between two given extremes. This is the situation in which it is to be viewed at present.

That triangles, agreeing in all their angles, have their corresponding sides proportional, is one of those truths which enter into almost every geometrical demonstration ; and it is the basis of this investigation.

All cases of this sort may be classed under two general heads. I. When the whole number of terms is uneven. II. When the whole number of terms is even.

For the greater perspicuity, let us begin with the most simple cases, which, though the methods of resolving them are known, must form the basis of our reasoning ; and, without which, the system will not be complete. The whole will be comprised in four propositions.

#### P R O B L E M    I.

IT is required to find one mean proportional between two given extremes.

It is a well known property of a circle, that a sine is always a geometrical mean between the versed sine and the remaining part of the diameter. Therefore, make a right line A B (see Plate 1. Fig. 1.) equal to the sum of the given extremes A C and C B ; from the point of union C, raise a perpendicular

perpendicular  $CD$ , and bisecting the line  $AB$  in  $E$ , with the radius  $AE$  draw the semicircle  $AFB$ ; then will the line  $CF$ , intercepted between the circumference and the diameter of the semicircle, be the mean term sought.

PROBLEM II.

TO find two mean proportionals between two given extremes.

This must be done by similar triangles, it being an universal principle, that similar triangles have proportional sides. Let  $ACE$ ,  $ECD$ , and  $DCB$ , (Fig. 2.) be equal angles of any assumed magnitude; and let  $AC$  and  $BC$  be the extremes given. Draw  $AB$ , a right line crossing  $EC$  and  $DC$  in the points  $E$  and  $D$ . Then will  $AEC$  equal  $EDC + DCE$ , and for the same reason  $CBD$  will equal  $CDE - DCE$ . Wherefore, make  $BDF$  equal to  $DCE$ , and  $AEG$  equal to  $DCE$ , and we shall have three similar triangles  $FCD$ ,  $DCE$ , and  $ECG$ , and their sides are necessarily proportional. And the lines  $CF$ ,  $CD$ ,  $CE$ , and  $CG$  form a series of four continued proportionals: For  $CD$  is the hypotenuse of the first triangle, and base of the second; and is therefore a mean between  $CF$  and  $CE$ . In like manner  $CE$  is the hypotenuse of the second, and the base of the third triangle; and is therefore, a mean between  $CD$  and  $CG$ . But the extremes  $CF$  and  $CG$  are shorter than  $CB$  and  $CA$ . Having therefore, by this process, ascertained the method of finding easily four continued proportionals, by beginning with the mean terms; if we invert the process, and begin with the extremes, and make the angles  $EAI$  and

$A 2$

$DBK$

DBK each equal to DCE, we shall have BK parallel to FD, and AI parallel to EG, and therefore KI parallel to DE. Therefore, the triangles CBK, CKI, and CIA are similar to CDE; and by reason of position, CK and CI are the mean proportionals sought. It is evident, that the two triangles CFD and CEG are introduced only for the demonstration; but in practice, it is only necessary, after joining the points A and B, to make EAI equal to DCE and we have the term in the series next to one of the extremes, which is all that is in such a case required. Clearness made it necessary in the present instance, that the whole process should be performed.

### PROBLEM III.

TO find any required even number of mean continued proportionals between two given extremes.

From what was said, under the second proposition, it is evident, that if any number of similar triangles be made, and the subtense of one of the angles at C (Fig. 3.) be continued as EE, the angle EEI will always equal ECE. The angle BAE is therefore, always equal to all the angles on one side of the middle angle, when the number of angles at C is uneven, as it is in the present problem. The number of angles at C is always less by one, than the number of terms. If therefore, the number of terms be twelve, the angles will be eleven; and BAE will equal five of them, being all the angles on one side of the middle angle. CE, the second line in the figure, is therefore, one of the lines sought; and next in order to one of the extremes, from which all the rest are easily obtained.

### PROBLEM

PROBLEM IV.

TO find any uneven number of mean continued proportionals, the extremes being given.

Here, the angles at C (Fig. 4.) being even, after preparing the work according to Fig. 2, it becomes necessary to find the general mean of the whole series, by Prob. I. and to mark it off from C to D upon the middle line. Draw AD and BD. Then if BD be continued to E, the angle ADE will, by construction, be equal to ACD, equal to all the angles on one side of the general mean CD. Therefore make EDF equal to one of the angles at C, and mark the point F in the next line, in the series following CD; and the distance CF will be the length of the term in the series next following the general mean.

This system is now reduced to a simple form, and applies to all cases. Instead of its remaining any longer a difficulty to double solids, it appears, that they may be multiplied in any ratio whatever, by an easy process. It is to be observed, that when the number of terms is even, the term first found is next to one of the extremes; and when the whole number is uneven, it is next to the general mean. I shall be gratified to find hereafter, that the method is simplified still further, by a happier hand than mine.

II. *A Rule for trisecting Angles geometrically*, by JAMES WINTHROP, Esq.

**T**HE trisection of angles, by a geometrical process, has been so long sought for by the curious, that I cannot help feeling some degree of reluctance at offering any thing on that subject. As I am wholly unacquainted with what is already done on this question, it is not impossible, that the following solution of it may have been already published. Should this happen to be the case, I hope that the candour of this learned society will excuse it, as arising from want of opportunity to read in these branches of science, and the consequent want of opportunity to get information in them.

Let  $AB$  or  $Bg$  (Plate 1. Fig. 5.) represent the arcs to be divided, and  $Af$  or  $gf$ , one third of their respective arcs; then  $ef$  will be in each of them, the sine of the third, and  $Bf$  the chord of the two thirds. Now, by the properties of a circle, the sine  $ef$  must always be equal to half the chord  $fB$ . The difficulty consists in ascertaining the point  $f$ , whence the sine and the chord must be drawn, bearing that relation to each other. The method to be proposed at present, is by a regular curve which shall trisect all possible arcs, having their centres in the line  $AC$ , and terminating one way in that line, and the other way in the point  $B$ .

It is evident, that any arc, less than a quadrant, may be drawn from  $B$  to the radius  $Ad$  of the primitive circle (Fig. 5.) as by the construction of that figure,  $Bg$  drawn round  $C$  as a centre, is equal to half a right angle. It is likewise clear, that

that the nearer the arc is drawn to the line  $Bd$ , the less portion of a circle it will be, till at last it degenerates into a right line. Let  $dh$  be made equal to one third of  $Bd$ ; and the sine  $ef$  will always exceed  $dh$ , till the arc shall be reduced to a right line; when they will be exactly equal. A curve therefore, having its vertex in  $h$ , and so constructed as to pass through  $f$ , or, which is the same thing, having every point of its circumference twice as far from  $B$  as from the line  $Ad$ , will trisect all possible arcs having their centres in the line  $AC$ . For, by being continued from  $h$  to  $f$ , it will trisect the smaller portion of a circle, or a portion less than a semicircle, which has its centre in the line  $AC$ ; and if it be continued infinitely from  $V$  through  $C$  (Fig. 6.) it will trisect the greater portion.

Having ascertained the property of the curve which applies to our present purpose, it remains to propose methods for projecting it. The methods we shall take are the same that are used in drawing a parabola. We shall begin with finding points.

Draw the line  $AF$  (Fig. 6) of a convenient length. Make  $AV$  equal to half of  $FV$ ; draw  $AB$  equal to twice  $AF$ , and at right angles with  $AF$ ; and complete the parallelogram  $ABCF$ . Then will  $F$  be the focus,  $V$  the vertex,  $AB$  the directrix, and  $FC$  the semiparameter of the curve. To find a suitable number of points in the circumference of the curve, extend the compasses from  $A$  to some point as  $d$ , in the line  $AF$ , between  $F$  and  $V$ . Make  $BG$  equal

equal to  $A d$ , and join  $d G$ . Double the distance  $A d$ , and set off that new distance from  $F$  to  $P$ , where the compasses mark the line  $d G$ . The point  $P$  will be in the periphery of the curve. For let  $P I$  be drawn perpendicular to the directrix  $A B$ ; then, because  $d G$  is parallel to  $A B$ , and the angle at  $A$  is a right angle,  $P I$  is equal to  $A d$ ; and because  $F P$  is double to  $A d$ , it is also double to  $P I$ ; which was required.

The trouble of drawing this curve is very little more than that of drawing the parabola. The additional labour consists only in doubling the distance  $A d$ , in order to find the *Radius Vector*  $F P$ . In the parabola,  $A V$  is always equal to the focal distance  $F V$ ; and the radius vector is always equal to the focal distance, *plus* the absciss  $V d$ . In the trifecting curve, the radius vector is always equal to twice  $A d$ ; or, which is the same thing, as  $A V$  is equal to half the focal distance, the radius vector  $F P$  is equal to the whole focal distance, *plus* twice the absciss  $V d$ . Hence it appears, that  $F C$ , the semiparameter of the trifecting curve, is to the semiparameter of a parabola of the same focal distance, as three to two.

If an arc be described less than a quadrant as  $B f g$  (Fig. 5.) it will be so divided, that  $f g$  will be one third of it. But  $f g$  will be one sixth of any arc  $B g k$ , less than a semicircle. Any arc therefore, less than a semicircle, will be trifected by that part of the curve which falls within the primitive circle. The greater portion of a circle may be trifected, either

er by subtracting one third of the smaller portion from a third of the whole, or by continuing the arc through the point F, till it meets the curve without the primitive circle. For F P being one third of a semicircle, the arc intercepted between F and any point of the curve without the point P, will be one third of a portion larger than a semicircle.

In fig. 7, is represented the manner of describing the trifecting curve by a steady motion. A B is the directrix; F C, the arc to be divided; D E G, a square, one side of which is to be moved along the directrix; F E, part of a thread, one end of which is tied to a pin at the focus F, and the length of it such, that when the side of the ruler, along which the pencil is to move, coincides with F V, the axis of the curve, and the pencil placed in V, the thread is to pass from F round the pencil, then round a pin near the top of the ruler, and returning, the end is to be tied to the pencil. Then, as one side of the square moves along the directrix, the *radius vector* F E is continually lengthening; and of consequence, the pencil is pressed towards the top of the ruler. Upon the principle of the pulley, the line F E must increase twice as fast as the pencil ascends towards the upper extremity of the ruler; which is precisely the proportion required. This construction differs from that of the parabola, only in tying one end of the thread to the pencil, instead of fastening it to the ruler; and this difference is necessary, because in the present case, the additions to the radius vector are double to those in the parabola.

C

III. Rules

III. *Rules for Resolving two Cases in Oblique Spherical Trigonometry*, by WILLIAM CROSWELL, A. M. *Teacher of Navigation.*

**G**IVEN two sides of an oblique angled spherical triangle and the included angle, required the third side.

R U L E.

Add together the cosecant of half the included angle, the half cosecants of the including sides, and the sine of half the difference of the sides; the sum will be the tangent of an angle, the cosecant of which being added to the sine of half the difference of the sides, the sum will be the sine of half the required side.

*Example.* Let the including sides be, one  $82^{\circ} 16'$ , and the other  $62^{\circ} 40'$ , and the including angle  $127^{\circ} 08'$ , and let it be required to find the other side.

2)  $127^{\circ} 08'$  Half difference of including sides  $9^{\circ} 48'$

63 34 Cosecant. 0 04798

62 40 Half Cose. 0 02571

82 16 Half Cose. 0 00199

9 48 Sine. 9 23098

9 23098

$11^{\circ} 27'$  &c. Tangent. 9 30666 Corref. Cose. 0 70209

$59^{\circ} 00'$  Sine. 9 93307

2

118 00 Side required.

By this rule, mutatis mutandis, when two angles, and the included side are given, the third angle may be found:—and by reversing this rule, when three sides are given, an angle may be found.

GIVEN the apparent distance of the moon from the sun, or a fixed star ; and also the apparent and true altitudes of the objects ; required their true distance.

R U L E.

To the apparent distance, add the difference of the apparent altitudes, and take half the sum : also, from the apparent distance, subtract the difference of the apparent altitudes, and take half the remainder ; then add together the half cosecants of the half sum, and half remainder, the reserved logarithm, and the sine of half the difference of the true altitudes ; the sum will be the tangent of an angle, the corresponding cosecant of which being added to the sine of half the difference of the true altitudes, the sum will be the sine of half the true distance.

*Example.* Moon's apparent altitude  $12^{\circ} 30'$ . True altitude  $13^{\circ} 20' 42''$ . Star's apparent altitude  $24^{\circ} 48'$ . True altitude  $24^{\circ} 45' 57''$ . Apparent distance  $51^{\circ} 28' 35''$ . Required the true distance.

$$\begin{array}{r} 24^{\circ} 48' \\ 12 \ 30 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

12 18 Difference of apparent altitudes.

$$\begin{array}{r} 24^{\circ} 45' 57'' \\ 13 \ 20 \ 42 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$2) \ 11 \ 25 \ 15$$

5 42 38 Half difference of true altitudes.

$$51^{\circ} 28' 35'' \quad \text{Apparent distance} \quad 51^{\circ} 28' 35''$$

$$12 \ 18 \ 00 \text{ Differ. of appar. altitudes} \quad 12 \ 18 \ 00$$

$$2) \ 63 \ 46 \ 35$$

$$31 \ 53 \ 18 \text{ Half sum.}$$

$$2) \ 39 \ 10 \ 35$$

$$19 \ 35 \ 17 \text{ Half rem. Reserved}$$

Reserved log.		68	
Half sum.	31° 53' 18"	Half cose. o	13857
Half rem.	19 35 17	Half cose. o	23731
Ha. diff. of t. al.	5 42 38	Sine.	8 99783
			8 99783
	13° 19' &c.	Tangent.	9 37439
		Cose. o	63745
			25° 34' 56" Sin. 9 63528
			2
			51 9 52 True distance.

Instead of finding the seconds in the arc answering to the above tangent, the corresponding cosecant is found at once by the following proportion : as the difference between the next greater, and next less tangents, to the difference between the corresponding cosecants, so is the difference between the given tangent, and the next greater, to a fourth number, which must be added to the least of the corresponding cosecants.



IV. *Observations of an Annular Eclipse of the Sun, at Cambridge, April 3d, 1791, by SAMUEL WEBBER, A. M. Hollis Professor of Mathematicks and Philosophy in the University at Cambridge.*

**E**XPECTING an annular eclipse of the sun, on the third of April, I previously took corresponding altitudes of the sun with a transit instrument, in order to ascertain, with all the precision in my power, the going of the clock, which belongs to the University. But, the day before the eclipse happened, the clock unfortunately stopped, for want of some repairs,

repairs, which, it was expected would have been made before that time. This circumstance not only occasioned the loss of the observations that had been made on the going of the clock, but also rendered it wholly unfit to be used in viewing the expected phenomenon, or in making any kind of astronomical observations. The failure of my clock being known to the Reverend President of the University, he, with his usual goodness, invited me to observe with him; as his clock was good, and regulated for the purpose. The telescope which I intended to use on this occasion, was accordingly removed to his house. It is a reflector made by Short, three feet in length, and magnifying 90 times. The time of each contact was noted, and afterwards reduced to apparent time, according to the clock's difference from apparent time, and rate of going, as determined by the President; and is as follows, viz.

	h.	'	"	
Beginning, or first external contact, April 3.	6	1	27	A. M.
First internal contact,	7	8	7	
Second internal contact,	7	12	56	
End, or second external contact,	8	28	26	
	h.	'	"	
Annulus,	0	4	49	
Duration,	2	26	59	

Viewed through a telescope, the eclipse appeared to be nearly, or quite central. At both the internal contacts, there was a curious and striking appearance of what may be called drops, on account of their resemblance to drops of a fluid. At the first contact, when the horns of the sun were forming a ring about the moon, these luminous drops suddenly appeared

appeared at several different points, with very little difference of time. At first, they were nearly circular ; but they rapidly extended themselves along the limb of the sun, till uniting, they completed the annulus. At the second contact, several breaches in the annulus almost instantaneously succeeded the first, at different distances from each other ; and the oblong drops included between them, contracted and vanished.

The sky was perfectly clear, during the whole time of the eclipse ; and our observation was not interrupted by the intervention of a single cloud.

The fear of losing an observation of one of the contacts prevented my taking any measures with a micrometer ; as the only one in my possession is fitted to the telescope, with which I observed the contacts ; and some time would be requisite to adjust it to the micrometer, and afterwards for use without it.



*V. Observations of the Transit of Mercury over the Sun's Disc, November 5th, 1789, by the Rev. JOSEPH WILLARD, D. D. President of the University, and Vice President of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.*

THE circumstances attending the transit of Mercury, which happened November 12th, 1782, were more favourable in North America than in Europe. The altitude of the Sun was much greater at the beginning of the transit, and the whole was visible to us ; whereas the Sun sat in Europe,

Europe, before the two last contacts happened. But Mercury's latitude was then so great, that the times of the contacts could by no means be determined, with that precision as when the latitude is small. For this reason, the transit of November 5th, this year, became more peculiarly interesting. And it was of more importance that it should be observed in America, as the whole was visible to us, which it was not to the Europeans.

Having determined to make as accurate observations upon this transit, as should be in my power, I began to take equal altitudes of the Sun, to ascertain the going of my clock, as early as the twentieth day of October: and, by observations made on that day, and the 22d and 23d, I found, that it did not deviate from keeping equal time, more than half a second in twenty four hours. After the 23d, the weather became peculiarly unfavourable for observations of the Sun, on account of clouds and rain; so that I could not obtain a complete set of equal altitudes, till the 2d day of November; when I found that the Sun passed the meridian by my clock, making the equation for the change of declination, during the half interval between the forenoon and afternoon observations, at  $11^{\circ} 59' 33'' 17'''$ . The 3d and 4th days of the month were cloudy; but, on the morning of the 5th, the day of the transit, the atmosphere was very clear; not a cloud was to be seen; and there was nothing unfavourable to observations of this phenomenon, except the wind, which at times was pretty high. This however, did not prevent the contacts' being determined with great exactness.

For

For observing the contacts, I was furnished with an excellent achromatick telescope of  $3\frac{1}{2}$  feet long; the largest magnifying power of which is 90, and is that which I made use of upon this occasion. For measuring distances, I had Dollond's micrometer, fitted to a reflecting telescope of a foot long.

About a quarter of an hour before the time when the first contact was expected by calculation, I sat down to my telescope: and having previously determined the part of the Sun's limb, where the first impression would be made, I endeavoured to keep that point, as near as I could judge, in the centre of the field of view: and such was its situation at the time of the first external contact, which happened at  $8^h 24' 4''$ , A. M. apparent time. The atmosphere appeared very clear, and there was no undulation of the Sun's limb, but it was in a small degree serrated; and nothing but that appearance could give an uncertainty to this observation. Possibly there might be an error on this account, of two or three seconds. But, the indents upon the limb were by no means, so large as in the transit of November 12th, 1782, at the time of the first contact.

The apparent time of the first internal contact was  $8^h 25' 52''$ . No uncertainty seemed to attend this observation; and as soon as Mercury was wholly within the Sun, his disc appeared perfectly circular.

I measured the distance of Mercury from the Sun's limb a number of times, whilst he was passing over the disc; but the wind was so high and troublesome, when I was using that short and unsteady telescope, to which the micrometer

was

was fixed, that I was not so far satisfied with them at the time, as to suppose they could be safely used to determine the least distance of centres : but was persuaded, that if the observations of the two last contacts should be as favourable as those of the two first, the least distance of centres, and the latitude of Mercury, might with more accuracy, be deduced from the contacts, than from any of the micrometer measures. I did not attempt, on the same account, to measure Mercury's semidiameter by the micrometer, but left it to be determined from the contacts. As the Sun's diameter was a large angle, and could more easily be taken than small ones, I applied the micrometer several times, to measure it, when the wind was least troublesome ; and found it, parallel with the horizon, to be  $32' 24'' 33$ .

The atmosphere was perfectly clear at the time of the two last contacts ; and I found the internal one happened at  $1^h 15' 44''$  P. M. and the external one at  $1^h 17' 36''$  P. M. both apparent time.

I took corresponding altitudes of the Sun on the day of the transit ; and found, that when it passed the meridian, it was, by my clock, using the proper equation for change of declination,  $11^h 59' 36'' 22'''$ . From the 2d of November therefore, to the 5th, the clock had gained upon apparent time  $3'' 5'''$ . If it had kept mean time exactly, it would have gained  $3'' 54'''$ . Hence it appears, that it deviated but about  $\frac{1}{4}$  of a second in twenty four hours, from keeping mean time.

Having had so good observations of this phenomenon, I thought it my duty to communicate them to the Academy.

D

And

And I shall conclude the paper by making those deductions from them, which I hope, may in some measure, subserve the interests of Astronomy.

The elements for the calculations are from M. Mayer's Tables of the Sun, published in the year 1770, and M. de la Lande's Tables of Mercury, in the first volume of the second edition of his Astronomy, published in the the year 1771; reckoning the difference of meridians between Cambridge, and the Royal Observatory at Greenwich,  $4^{\text{h}} 44' 31''$ ; and between Cambridge, and the Royal Observatory at Paris,  $4^{\text{h}} 53' 47''$ .

By these tables we find  $\varphi$ 's distance from the Sun, reduced to the ecliptick, at the time of the conjunction, Log. 4. 498326, in numbers = 31501; the Sun's distance from the earth, Log. 4. 995777, in numbers = 99032; Mercury's distance from the earth therefore, in numbers, was 67531 = Log. 4. 829503. By the best calculations, from the observations of the transit of Venus, made in the year 1769, the Sun's horizontal parallax, on the day of the transit of Mercury, must have been  $8''.85$ . Having these requisites, we may find Mercury's horizontal parallax thus:—  $\varphi$ 's distance from the earth :  $\odot$ 's distance from it ::  $\odot$ 's horizontal parallax :  $\varphi$ 's horizontal parallax; which is found =  $12''.978$ : consequently,  $\varphi$ 's horizontal parallax from  $\odot$  =  $4''.128$ .

The Sun's horary motion, during the transit, was  $2' 30''.7$ : Mercury's heliocentrick horary motion in longitude in the ecliptick, at the time of the first external contact, was  $14' 59''$ ; and at the time of the second,  $15' 3''$ : consequently, his motion from the Sun,  $12' 28''.3$  and  $12' 32''.3$ :  
from

from which we may find Mercury's horary motion upon the Sun's disc, with respect to the ecliptick, at the beginning of the transit,  $5' 49''. 059$ ; and at the end,  $5' 50''. 955$ . This was the compound motion of the Sun and Mercury; Mercury's motion being retrograde. If therefore, we subtract the Sun's horary motion, we shall have Mercury's geocentrick horary motion in longitude, at the beginning of the transit,  $3' 18''. 359$ ; and at the end,  $3' 20''. 255$ .

Mercury's heliocentrick motion in longitude, from  $8^h 24' 4''$ , the time of the first external contact, till  $10^h 39' 31''$ , the time of the ecliptick conjunction, by the tables, was  $33' 50''. 1$ , making  $28' 9''. 9$  from the Sun, and  $13' 8''. 29$  for his motion upon the Sun's disc, which makes his geocentrick motion in longitude  $7' 28''. 09$ . The similar motions, from  $10^h 39' 31''$  to  $1^h 17' 36''$ , the time of the second external contact, were  $39' 35''. 2$ ,  $32' 58''. 2$ ,  $15' 22''. 77$  and  $8' 45''. 77$ . Mercury's horary motion in latitude, at the beginning of the transit, was  $51''. 404$ ; and at the end,  $51''. 685$ ; and from  $8^h 24' 4''$  to  $10^h 39' 31''$ ,  $1' 56''. 011$ ; and from  $10^h 39' 31''$ , to  $1^h 17' 36''$ ,  $2' 16''. 115$ , decreasing.

The longitude of the Sun therefore, and Mercury's geocentrick longitude, by the tables, at  $10^h 39' 31''$ , being  $7^h 13^o 45' 56''. 5$ ; and the latitude of Mercury,  $7' 27''. 95$ , we shall find,

At the time of the first external contact, viz.  $8^h 24' 4''$  A. M.  
 $\odot$ 's longitude.  $7^h 13^o 35' 16''. 3$   
 $\text{\textcircled{v}}$ 's geocentrick longitude.  $7 13 48 24. 59$   
 $\text{\textcircled{v}}$ 's geocentrick latitude.  $9 23. 961$   
 $\odot$ 's right ascension.  $221 7 34$   
Right

Right ascension of the mid heaven.	167° 8' 34"
Which being substracted from } 270°, gives $\angle$ at the pole. }	102 51 26
☉'s semidiameter, by observation.	16 12. 125
The obliquity of the ecliptick.	23 28 0
Latitude of Cambridge, 42° 23' 28" N. re- duced to centr. }	42 8 37

From these elements, we find the longitude of the nonagefimal degree, 4° 26' 32' 44", and altitude, 55° 49' 42", and Mercury's parallax in longitude from the Sun, 3". 333; and in latitude, 2". 322.

At the time of the second external contact, viz. 1<sup>h</sup> 17' 36" P.M.

☉'s longitude.	7° 13' 47' 33". 5
☿'s geocentrick longitude.	7 13 32 10. 73
☿'s geocentrick latitude.	5 11. 835
☉'s right ascension.	221 19 45
Right ascension of the mid heaven.	240 43 45
Which substracted from 270°, gives $\angle$ at } the pole. }	29 16 15

From these elements we find the longitude of the nonagefimal degree, 7° 6' 22' 32", and altitude, 34° 15' 56", and Mercury's parallax in longitude from the Sun, 0". 29; and in latitude, 3". 416.

At 8<sup>h</sup> 29' 52" A. M. the apparent time of ☿'s first internal contact, his parallax in longitude from the Sun, was 3". 323; and in latitude, 2". 329.

At 1<sup>h</sup> 15' 44", P. M. the apparent time of ☿'s second internal contact, his parallax in longitude from the Sun, was 0". 318; and in latitude, 3". 412.

For

For  $\varphi$ 's femidiameter by the observation of the contacts, and also his latitude, together with the time of the ecliptick conjunction: In fig. 8, Plate 1. let  $ESK$  represent the southern half of the Sun's disc; the diameter  $E \odot K$  a portion of the ecliptick, or rather a line parallel to it, being removed from it = the Sun's parallax in latitude;  $C \varphi$  Mercury's visible geocentrick latitude at the time of the first external contact;  $LM$  his visible geocentrick latitude, at the time of the second external contact; the line  $MU$  drawn from the point  $M$  parallel to  $KE$  = Mercury's visible motion upon the Sun's disc, between the two external contacts, reduced to the ecliptick; consequently,  $\varphi U$  = his visible motion in geocentrick latitude, during the time which passed between the two external contacts. Therefore,  $\varphi M$  is the visible transit line; and  $\varphi MU$ , the angle which this line makes with the ecliptick. The point  $\odot$  is the Sun's centre, at the apparent time of the visible conjunction of centres;  $\odot N$  perpendicular to  $\varphi M$ , the visible least distance of centres;  $\odot D$  perpendicular to the ecliptick, the visible distance of centres, at the time of the visible ecliptick conjunction;  $\varphi \odot$  and  $M \odot$  = the sum of the femidiameter of the Sun and Mercury, the distance of centres, at the time of the external contacts;  $\odot i$  and  $\odot r$  = the Sun's femidiameter, the distance of centres, at the time of the contacts of Mercury's centre with the Sun's limb;  $C U$  =  $U F$ , the visible difference of longitude of the centres, at the time of the first external contact, and  $\odot L$  the visible difference, at the time of the second.

The

The longitude of the nonagesimal degree, at the time of each contact, being less than the longitude of Mercury, the parallax in longitude is to be added to Mercury's longitude, at the time of each, to give the visible; and as Mercury's motion in transits is retrograde, and the parallax, at the time of the second external contact, was greater than at the time of the first, the length of the visible transit line was greater than the true, by the difference of the parallaxes.

The true latitude, at the time of each contact, was increased by the parallax in latitude; and as the geocentrick latitude was decreasing, and the parallax, at the time of the second external contact, was greater than at the time of the first, the visible motion in latitude was less than the true, by the difference of the parallaxes. Hence, we may easily find M U and  $\varphi$  U as follows:

$\varphi$ 's parallax in lon. from $\odot$ at 1st ext. cont.	3". 333
Do. at 2d.	0. 29
Difference.	3. 043
$\varphi$ 's motion on the $\odot$ 's disc, with respect to the ecliptick, in $4^h 53' 32''$ .	28' 31". 06
	= 1711". 06
Add the difference of parallaxes in longitude.	3. 043
The Sun is = M U.	1714. 103
$\varphi$ 's parallax in lat. from $\odot$ at 1st ext. cont.	2". 322
Do. at 2d.	3. 416
Difference.	1. 094
	$\varphi$ 's true

☿'s true motion in geocentrick lat. in  $4^h 53' 32''$ . 4 12. 12  
 $= 252''$ . 126

Subtract the difference of parallaxes in latitude. 1. 094

Visible motion in geocentrick latitude  $=$  ☿ U. 251. 032

Having found M U and ☿ U, we easily find the length of the visible transit line ☿ M, as follows: M U,  $1714''$ . 103 : ☿ U,  $251''$ . 032 :: Radius : Tangent  $\angle$  ☿ M U,  $8^\circ 19' 54''$ . 5 : Then Sine  $\angle$  ☿ M U,  $8^\circ 19' 54''$ . 5 : U ☿  $251''$ . 032 :: Radius : ☿ M,  $1732''$ . 39; the half of which, viz.  $866''$ . 195,  $=$  ☿ N, or M N.

Having obtained ☿ N and M N, we may proceed to find ☿'s semidiameter by observation.

At the time of the first contact, ☿'s horary motion on the ☉'s disc, reduced to the ecliptick, was  $5' 49''$ . 059 : therefore, in  $1' 48''$ , the time from the first external to the first internal contact, the motion was  $10''$ . 472. At the time of the last contact, the horary motion, with respect to the ecliptick, was  $5' 50''$ . 955, which gives  $10''$ . 917 for ☿'s motion upon the ☉'s disc, in  $1' 52''$ , the time between the second internal, and second external contact. The difference of the parallaxes between the first external, and first internal contact  $= 0''$ . 01, being added to  $10''$ . 472, will give the visible geocentrick motion of ☿ upon the ☉, with respect to the ecliptick,  $10''$ . 482 in  $1' 48''$ ; and the difference of the parallaxes between the second internal, and the second external contact  $= 0''$ . 028, being added to  $10''$ . 917, will give  $10''$ . 945, for the visible geocentrick motion of ☿ upon the ☉, with respect to the ecliptick, in  $1' 52''$ . ☿'s true motion in geocentrick latitude,

latitude, in  $1' 48''$  was  $1''. 546$ ; from which subtract  $0''. 007$ , the difference of the parallaxes in latitude in that time, and we shall have  $1''. 539$ , for  $\varphi$ 's visible motion in geocentrick latitude. In  $1' 52''$ ,  $\varphi$ 's true geocentrick motion in latitude, was  $1''. 603$ ; from which subtract the difference of parallaxes in latitude,  $0''. 004$ , and we shall have  $1''. 599$ , for  $\varphi$ 's visible motion in latitude. With these visible motions in longitude and latitude, we obtain  $10''. 594$  for  $\varphi$ 's visible motion in his path upon the Sun's disc, in  $1' 48''$ , and  $11''. 061$ , for his motion in  $1' 52''$ .

The mean of  $10''. 594$  and  $11''. 061$ , the motion of  $\varphi$  in crossing the Sun's limb, at the ingress and egress, is  $10''. 827$ ; the half of which, viz.  $5''. 414$ , being subtracted from  $866. 195$ , half the transit line, between the two external contacts, will leave  $860. 781$  = half the transit line, between  $\varphi$ 's central contact. = Ni, or Nr. Let the observed semidiameter of the Sun =  $972''. 125$ , be diminished  $4''. 5$ , for irradiation or inflexion, and we shall have  $967''. 625$ , for his semidiameter, to be used in these calculations; this is =  $\odot i$  or  $\odot r$ . Therefore, in the right angled plain triangles,  $\odot \varphi N$  and  $\odot M N$ , we have the hypotenuse,  $\odot i$  or  $\odot r$ , and side,  $\varphi N$  or  $M N$ , to find side  $\odot N$ ; which is obtained by multiplying together the sum and difference of the hypotenuse and leg, and extracting the square root of the product, which is easily done by logarithms. Thus  $\odot N$  is found =  $442''. 071$ .

Having found  $\odot N$ , let us assume  $5''$  for the semidiameter of  $\varphi$ , which added to the Sun's semidiameter, diminished by inflexion, will give  $972''. 665$ , for  $\odot \varphi$  and  $\varphi M$ ; and subtracted, will give  $962''. 665$ , for  $\odot s$  and  $\varphi x$ ; from which we may

may easily find  $N \varphi$  and  $Ns$ , and  $N M$  and  $Nx$ ; and consequently, obtain the spaces which Mercury would have run through between the external and internal contacts, had his semidiameter been equal to that assumed. These spaces are  $\varphi s$  and  $Mx$ , each  $= 11''. 242$ ; but the spaces run through by observation, were not so great; therefore,  $\varphi$ 's semidiameter by observation, was less than that which we have assumed, and may now be exactly obtained.  $\varphi$ 's by observation, was  $10''. 594$ , therefore,  $11''. 242 : 5'' :: 10''. 594 : 4''. 712$ .  $Mx$  by observation, was  $11''. 061$ ; therefore,  $11''. 242 : 5'' :: 11''. 061 : 4''. 919$ . From these results it appears, that  $\varphi$ 's semidiameter by the observation of the two first contacts, was  $4''. 712$ ; and by the observation of the two last,  $4''. 919$ ; the mean of which is  $4''. 815$ ; which we may use as the semidiameter of  $\varphi$ , in the calculations which follow.

For  $\varphi$ 's geocentrick latitude at the time of the external contacts :

We have already found  $\varphi \odot U = N \odot D = 8^\circ 19' 54''. 5$ , and  $\varphi N$ , the visible transit line  $= 1732''. 39$ , the half of which, viz.  $866''. 195$ , is  $= \varphi N$  or  $M N$ ; also  $\varphi$ 's semidiameter by observation  $= 4''. 815$ , which added to  $\odot$ 's reduced semidiameter,  $967''. 665$ , will give  $972''. 48 = \odot \varphi$ : Therefore,  $\varphi N 972''. 48 : \text{Radius} :: \varphi N 866''. 195 : \text{Sine } \angle \varphi \odot N 62^\circ 57' 44''. 2$ . From this subtract  $\angle N \odot D$ ,  $8^\circ 19' 54''. 5$ , and the remainder, viz.  $54^\circ 37' 49''. 7$ , will be  $= \angle \varphi \odot D$ ; the complement of which angle, viz.  $35^\circ 22' 10''. 3$  will be  $= \angle \varphi \odot C$ ; because  $D \odot C$  is a right angle. Having found  $\angle \varphi \odot C$ , we may say,  $\text{Radius} : \odot \varphi, 972''. 48 :: \text{Sine } \angle \varphi \odot C, 35^\circ 22' 10''. 3 : C \varphi, 562''. 917 =$   

E
 $9' 22''. 917$

$9' 22'' . 917$  = the visible difference of latitude between the Sun and Mercury, at the time of the first external contact; from which subtract Mercury's parallax in latitude from the Sun  $= 2'' . 322$ , and the remainder, viz.  $9' 20'' . 595$ , will be Mercury's true latitude by observation. — The latitude by the tables, being  $9' 23'' . 961$ , the error is  $+ 3'' . 366$ .

For the difference of longitude of the centres of the Sun and Mercury at the time of the first external contact, and consequently at the time of the ecliptick conjunction :

Radius :  $\odot \varphi$ ,  $972'' . 48 ::$  Sine  $\angle \odot \varphi C$ ,  $35^\circ 22' 10'' . 3 : C \odot$ ,  $792'' . 995$ , the visible difference of longitude of the Sun's and Mercury's centre; from which subtract  $3'' . 333$ , Mercury's parallax in longitude from the Sun, and the remainder, viz.  $789'' . 662$ , will be the true difference of longitude by observation.

Mercury's heliocentrick motion in longitude from  $8^h 24' 4''$ , A. M. to  $10^h 39' 31''$ , A. M. viz. in  $2^h 15' 27''$ , was by the tables,  $1689'' . 9$ ; which will give  $788'' . 29$  for his geocentrick motion on the Sun's disc, reduced to the ecliptick. Therefore,  $788'' . 29 : 2^h 15' 27'' = 8127'' :: 789'' . 662 : 8141'' = 2^h 15' 41''$ ; which added to the time of the first external contact, viz.  $8^h 24' 4''$ , will give  $10^h 39' 45''$ , A. M. for the apparent time of the true ecliptick conjunction by observation; being  $14''$  later than by the tables.

At  $10^h 39' 45''$ , the Sun's longitude was  $7^\circ 13' 40'' 57'' . 1$ ; consequently, it being the ecliptick geocentrick conjunction, Mercury's geocentrick longitude was the same, which makes his heliocentrick longitude at that time, to have been  $1^\circ 13' 40'' 57'' . 1$

40' 57". 1; but by the tables, it was 7° 13' 41" 0. 0, Mercury's error therefore, in longitude, was + 2". 9.

For Mercury's heliocentrick latitude, at the time of the ecliptick conjunction, by observation, and his distance from the node :

In 2<sup>h</sup> 15' 27", or 8127", ☿'s motion in geocentrick latitude by the tables, was 1' 56". 011 : Therefore, 8127" : 116. 011 :: 8141" : 116". 213 = 1' 56". 213. This was Mercury's motion in latitude, in 2<sup>h</sup> 15' 41" ; which being substracted from 9' 20". 595, his geocentrick latitude, at the time of the first external contact, will give 7' 24". 382, for his geocentrick latitude, at the time of the observed ecliptick conjunction : Then ☿'s distance from the Sun : ☿'s distance from the earth :: ☿'s geocentrick latitude, 7' 24". 382 = 444". 382 : ☿'s heliocentrick latitude, 952". 578 = 15' 52". 578.

Let  $\Omega$  E. Fig 9. be a portion of the ecliptick ; the point  $\Omega$  the place of ☿'s ascending node ;  $\Omega$  ☿, a portion of ☿'s heliocentrick orbit ; the point at ☿, his heliocentrick place in his orbit, at the time of the ecliptick conjunction ; and E, his place reduced to the ecliptick ; E ☿, his heliocentrick latitude ; the angle E  $\Omega$  ☿, the inclination of his orbit = 7° 0' 0". In the right angled spherick triangle, right angled at E, there are given the angle E  $\Omega$  ☿, and the perpendicular or side E ☿, to find the base or side  $\Omega$  E = Mercury's distance from the ascending node :

Radius : Tangent, E ☿, 15' 52". 578 :: Tangent co  $\angle$ , E  $\Omega$  ☿, 83° 0' 0" : Sine,  $\Omega$  E, 2° 9' 20" = ☿'s distance from the ascending node.

At

At 10<sup>h</sup> 39' 45", A. M. the time of the ecliptick conjunction,  $\varphi$ 's heliocentrick longitude was 1° 13' 40' 57". 1 ; from which substract the equation of the node, 13". 7, because the heliocentrick latitude is found for the longitude unequated ; The remainder is

1° 13' 40' 43". 4

To which add  $\varphi$ 's distance from  $\Omega$  }  
because  $\varphi$  was advancing to  $\Omega$  }

2 9 20

The sum is the place of the ascending node 1 15 50 3. 4

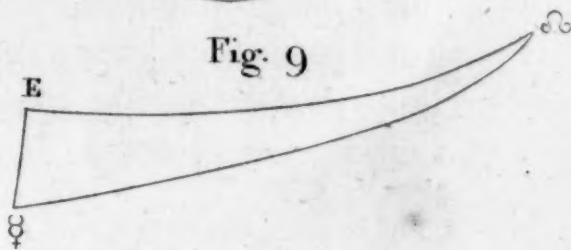
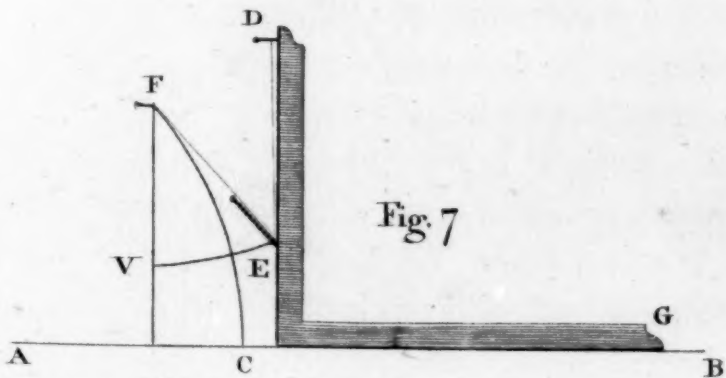
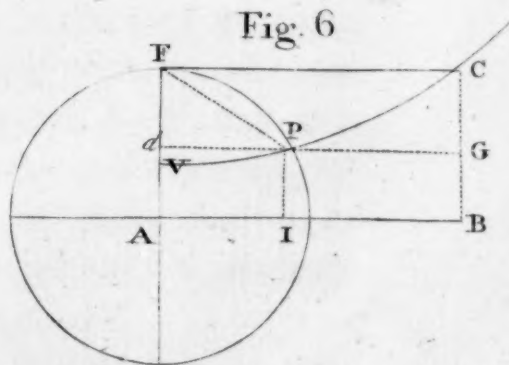
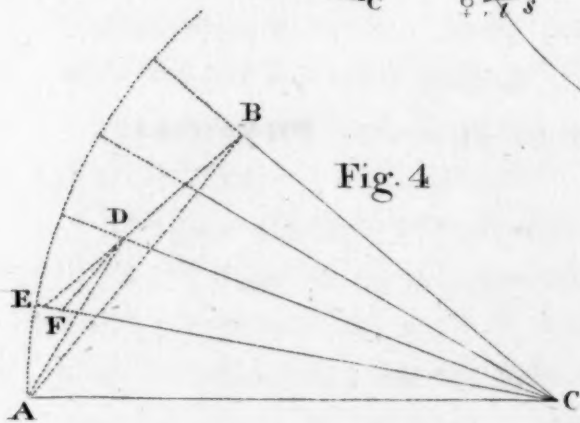
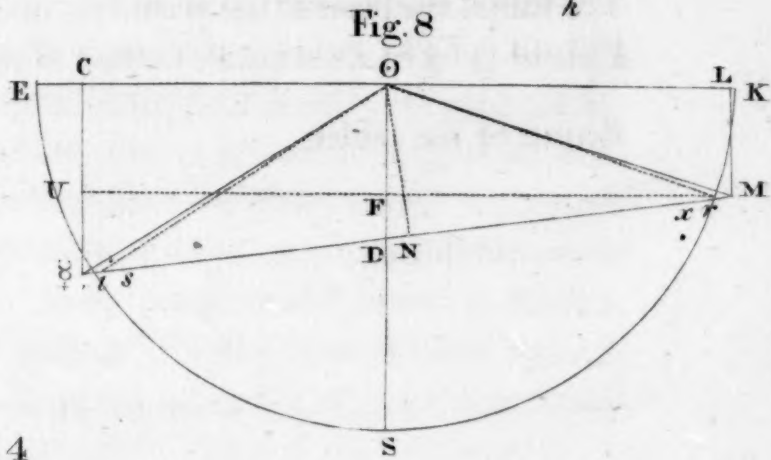
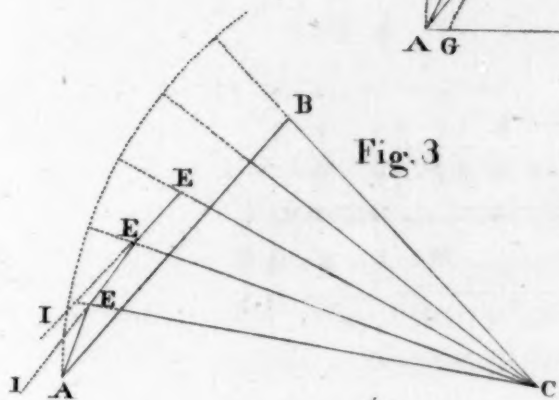
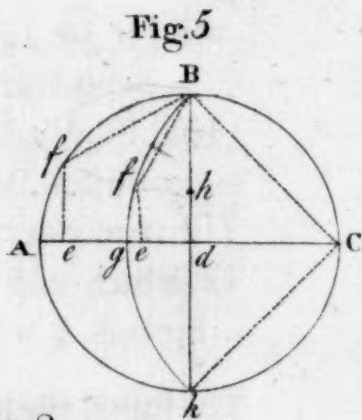
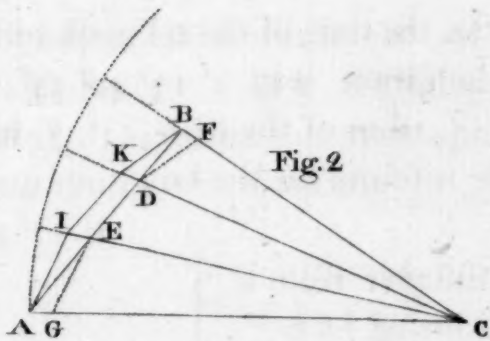
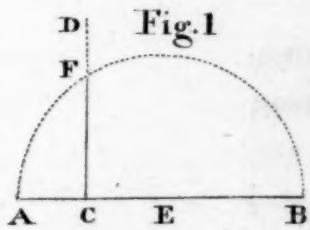
Place of  $\Omega$  by M. de la Lande's tables of 1771 1 15 51 8

Error of the tables.

+ 1 4. 4

# PHYSICAL

Plate 1





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## PHYSICAL PAPERS.

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I. *Observations on Prismatic Colours*, by Doctor SAMUEL  
TENNEY, of Exeter, F. A. A.

Exeter, 24th March, 1791.

DEAR SIR,

I HAVE long entertained some doubts of the accuracy of Sir Isaac Newton's theory of colours: and as "*Nullius addictus jurare in verba magistri*," is the general motto of modern enquirers after truth, I hope, that a modest attempt to point out an error in it, accompanied with a sincere wish to have my own opinion rectified, if it should appear to be wrong, will not be esteemed an act of disrespect to so great a name.

The part of Sir Isaac's theory, with which I am dissatisfied, is the number of colours inherent in the rays of light. That a pencil of rays is uniformly separated by the prism, into seven portions, exhibiting each a different colour, is evident to the sight; and that all other colours are made up of different combinations of these, follows of course. That some of the prismatic colours are also mere compounds, I shall endeavour to prove.

The justness of Sir Isaac's *Rules of philosophizing* has never, to my knowledge, been called in question. One of these directs us to "admit no more causes of any phenomenon than are necessary for explaining it":—and another asserts, that

it be proved, that all rays of the same colour possess precisely the same degree of refrangibility? Two circumstances concur to render it, at least probable that they do not. The first is, that the space occupied by any particular colour, in the prismatick picture, is so much wider than the aperture, through which the light is admitted upon the prism, for the experiment. For, if all the rays of that colour were equally refrangible, the picture could be no wider than the aperture; and would be terminated by well defined edges: which is the result of this law of refractions, that parallel rays, of the same refrangibility, perpetually maintain their parallelism. The second circumstance is, the unequal widths of the several colours in the prismatick picture. Now, as this cannot arise from the greater or less quantity of rays, which would produce only different degrees of intensity, it must proceed from this: that the rays of those colours which form the widest pictures, possess different degrees of refrangibility among themselves: in consequence of which, they are scattered over a greater space. This being allowed, it is highly probable, that some red, and some yellow rays may be equally refrangible; in which case, they must, at their exit from the prism, be necessarily blended. The same may hold good of the the other rays, some yellow and blue, some blue and violet remaining unseparated; from all which combinations will arise the orange, green, and purple colours.

Should it be here asserted, that these arguments prove only that rays of the same colour, suffer a dispersion from the imperfection of the refracting medium, I would answer, that although it would be impossible to account for the  
second

second appearance above mentioned, and its uniformity in all experiments, on this supposition ; yet, if granted, it will answer all the purposes of my argument : for this dispersion of rays, however occasioned, whether by a different refrangibility in rays of the same colour, or by the imperfection of the prism, will occasion an intermixture of neighbouring, simple colours ; from which the same compound colours must proceed, that are produced by the same mixtures in bodies, with which we are more intimately acquainted.

I know not with what force these reasonings will strike those, who are not influenced by the partiality which a man commonly feels for his own ideas ; but to me, they appear sufficient to warrant a modest conviction, that the original colours, or those inherent in the rays of light, ought to be reduced to these four, Red, Yellow, Blue, and Violet ; and that the other three, Orange, Green, and Purple, though among the most pleasing colours, should be degraded from the rank, which they have long unjustly held ; and considered as only some of the most simple of those, that are formed by composition.

After all, Sir, I am sensible it will be said, that in such enquiries, experiment is the only test of truth. It happens rather unfortunately for me, that, if I am right in my principle, that rays of the same colour possess different degrees of refrangibility, the case hardly admits of an experiment which can be decisive. On the other hand, if what I impute to this cause arise entirely from the imperfection of the prism, a second prism, so placed as to take only one of those colours, which I esteem compound, might determine the point. For instance, if orange be an original colour, the second prism

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could produce no change in it : but, if it be a compound, this second operation, by separating the red from the yellow rays, would annihilate it. But, on the former hypothesis, that some red, and some yellow rays may be equally refrangible, this experiment would be indecisive ; because no separation would be effected by it. I think of one experiment, by which (if it be practicable) some light may be thrown on the subject, though perhaps, not sufficient to discover where the truth lies. This is, to place four prisms in such situations, that the red rays of one, and the yellow of another, may be thrown together by the other two. If the common prismatick orange should be thus produced, it would be a strong circumstance in favour of my hypothesis.

As I have no prisms within my reach, to make these, or any other experiments, relative to the subject, it is not in my power. As I wish to have my ideas either verified or disproved, if you have among your acquaintance any one, who, being possessed of the necessary apparatus, will take the trouble of making some few such experiments, as the hints I have given, or his own ingenuity, may suggest, you will oblige me by turning his attention to the subject. And should you judge this epistolary essay to be worthy of the notice of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, I beg you will do me the honour to present it.

I am, my dear Sir,

with every sentiment of esteem,

your most devoted,

and humble Servant,

SAMUEL TENNEY.

The Rev. Mr. BELKNAP, F. A. A.

II. *An*

II. *An Account of a Number of Medicinal Springs at Saratoga, in the State of Newyork, by Dr. SAMUEL TENNEY.*

*Saratoga, September 1, 1783.*

DEAR SIR,

YOU may probably recollect, that the last time I had the pleasure of seeing you, I mentioned some mineral springs, in the vicinity of this place, which I had not then seen. I joined the regiment soon after, and took the first opportunity to visit them; and, I assure you, I never had less reason to repent of any pains taken to gratify my curiosity in my life. They are such a production of nature as is calculated, not only to attract the notice, and excite the admiration of the illiterate; but to engage the attention of the physician, the chemist, and the philosopher.

They were unknown (except to the Mohawks, in whose country they are found) 'till about thirteen years ago; at which time they were discovered by some surveyors. The land, for several miles round them, is a wilderness. They have been considerably frequented by the poorer sort of people, ever since their discovery; but for want of proper medical directions, and necessary accommodations, their usefulness has been hitherto much confined. I think they want only a suitable introduction to the world, and some convenient houses for boarding and lodging patients, to render them, under the advice of judicious physicians, of very important service to the country. Whether my expectations are too sanguine, time will discover. In the interim, for your satisfaction, I will first give a description of the wells—

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44 *Dr. TENNEY's Account of Several Medicinal Springs.*

in the next place, some experiments which I made on their waters, with such observations as naturally occurred to me in consequence of them—and then relate their effects, in such cases as I had an opportunity of observing, with some general remarks respecting their medicinal properties.

The springs are about ten in number; of which the extremes may be half a mile apart. They are situated about fourteen miles northwesterly of General Schuyler's seat, at Saratoga, in a kind of bog meadow, a few rods wide, through which runs a pleasant brook of sweet water. The land on each side of the meadow, rises fifteen or twenty feet above it; on the side next the springs, stony, but fit for cultivation; on the opposite side, sandy and barren. The bank adjoining some of the principal springs is very steep, and bound with a broken ledge of lime rocks, generally incrustated with flint, to the thickness of near an inch. This incrustation, which is unequal and ragged, gives them a very curious appearance. This ledge does not extend more than fifteen or twenty rods. From the place where it terminates, to the upper spring, there is an easy declivity from the level land above, to the margin of the meadow. For some distance in this extent, the brook, which like most others, winds through the meadow in a serpentine course, runs close to the bank. This part is, in some places, completely bridged over, for several rods, with large tables of stone, of about a foot thick; which were evidently shaken off the declivity, and shot over the bed of the stream. The bank, though it is covered with a considerable stratum of earth, appears to consist principally of a solid mass of rock, whence

whence those large plates were shaken. The remaining part is, in many places, cracked into deep fissures, two or three feet wide, and generally covered with tables, similar to those above mentioned. In other places they are open, and discover long subterraneous vaults. These ruins extend perhaps twenty rods, and were doubtless, if we may judge from present appearances, produced many ages since, by some very violent convulsion of nature.

I have been induced to be thus particular in my description of the neighbouring bank, not only from its singularity, but likewise on account of a conjecture which I shall hereafter venture to make, that there may be some connexion between the causes of those appearances, and those that gave rise to the springs.

I shall now attempt a description of the springs, beginning with the uppermost. This is about two rods from the foot of the bank ; the intervening meadow, a deep mud. This spring may be more properly termed a well. It is of an oval figure, and about three feet in its longest diameter. Its depth is undiscovered, though it has been sounded with a pole many feet long. It is perpetually emitting an infinite number of air bubbles, from the size of those in a glass of bottled cider, to that of a marble toy. This ebullition is constant, though not uniform. The larger will frequently intermit for a short space, and then recommence with renewed force.

The stream of water from this well, is not much larger than might pass through a large goose quill. The well is in the centre of a stony substance (raised about three feet above the surface of the meadow) which makes the perpendicular  
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walls ; and gradually inclining, terminates at the distance of eight or ten feet from it. This stony concrete is soft and friable ; and when broken off where it is wet, smells like a fresh oyster shell.

A few rods from this is another spring of the same kind, which discharges a still smaller quantity of water, and has but little stony matter about it. From appearances, I cannot but conjecture, that this must be of much later date than the former. There is one circumstance which renders it more than probable : the former was, 'till within a few years, surrounded with several others (some say ten or twelve) within the extent of the surrounding concretion. The orifices of these, several of which are still visible, are become impervious. The water therefore, formerly discharged by them, must have found vent by some other course ; as it is hardly probable that it could find admittance into the main well, through its solid sides, it is natural to suppose that it might go off in a lateral direction, where it found the least resistance, and force a passage in this place.

The next spring of any importance, is at about the same distance from the bank as the first ; and differs from it, in discharging a less quantity of water, and in being a kind of pool, instead of a well. The area is an irregular parallelogram, of about eight feet by five, and near two feet deep. It is surrounded by an equal quantity of the same stony substance as the first, with which, as I have been informed, it was formerly nearly covered. But the stone being soft and friable, part of it was broken away soon after its discovery, to render it commodious for bathing : the remainder has  
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been beat down by some means, not long since. From the foot of the ledge of rocks, above described, and within two rods of this pool, issues a considerable spring of very good sweet water.

The last that demands a particular description, proceeds from the solid ground, about a rod from the foot of the ledge, and at the same distance from the margin of the meadow. This is a well whose walls are a solid rock, of a conical form, about five feet high, with a pretty broad base. Near the ground, however, this rock is light and porous, with a mixture of vegetable substances, and here and there, the shell of a very minute muscle or snail. The heavy compact part is divisible into small scales, and is of a cream colour, interspersed with some light shades of red and yellow.

The cavity of this well is perfectly round at the top, and about nine inches in diameter. It grows wider as it descends, and becomes irregular in its figure. Its depth is unknown. It has some peculiarities that render it worthy of particular attention. The water is continually in a great agitation, boiling like that in a pot over a fire, and with the same noise ; yet, it discharges but a very small quantity of water, and that only once in a year. This happens, when the earth is filled with water by the vernal rains and melted snows, in the month of April or May. The water generally stands about a foot below the top of the rock ; but it is frequently observed to rise and fall a few inches. When a quantity is taken out, it gradually recovers its height, and remains there nearly stationary.

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There appears, at first view, some difficulty in accounting for the large discharge of air from this stagnant well. To remove it, I am disposed to believe that the water formerly flowing from it, which must have been considerable, has made itself a new vent. As soon as the stony concretion round this well, had risen to the height of the fountain from which it is supplied, the water could no longer overflow, but must force for itself another outlet. This it might do from the lower part of the well, which is pretty deep. In this case, while the water went off in its new course, the air it contained would naturally keep its direct ascent in the well. These suppositions are rendered more probable by two observable circumstances, viz. There are several small springs at no great distance from this well, that appear to be of a later date; and these springs do not discharge so much air as the others, in proportion to their water.

The appearance of the waters in all these wells, is nearly the same; being of a light milky colour, and in some of them a little turbid, by the particles of common earth kept suspended in them by their perpetual agitation. They are commonly covered in the morning with an azure tinctured film. Their taste is (apparently) acido saline, and much the same in all the springs mentioned. Though the taste itself is not pleasant, yet the impression which the water makes on the organs of taste, as it passes over them, is very lively, pungent, and agreeable; like that of good bottled beer or cider: and after drinking freely of them, I usually had eructations of the same pungent, stimulating gas, as is produced

duced by drinking those liquors. Unpleasant as their taste is at first, habit not only renders them tolerable ; but to most persons very agreeable. Most of the invalids whom I sent to the waters, drank them after a short time with great avidity, to the amount of several gallons in a day : and some of the most intemperate of them assured me, with great seriousness, that they preferred them to any kind of spirits.

Having thus executed the first part of my plan, I shall next mention the experiments which I made on the waters. These, on account of the distance of the springs from the post where I was stationed, and the want of a proper chemical apparatus, were few and simple. They were sufficient, however, to determine the general impregnation of the waters, though not to ascertain the proportions of the combination in the several wells.

1st. A quantity of the water was evaporated to dryness by boiling ; a greyish insipid powder remained, which produced a strong effervescence with the vitriolick acid, and appeared to be nothing but an impure calcareous earth.

2d. To some of the water I added a small proportion of the vitriolick acid ; this occasioned a violent effervescence for a short time : after it had subsided, the water lost its natural milky hue, and became as transparent as common water ; its acidity was increased ; but not in proportion to the quantity of acid that had been added.

3d. I threw into the water a quantity of salt of tartar, which instantly dissolved without producing the least effervescence. The water, however, became immediately turbid and milky. On standing a few minutes, the milky sub-

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stance began to separate, and form into flocculi, which in a short time, settled at the bottom of the phial, leaving the water clear and transparent. Notwithstanding the quantity of salt of tartar was considerable, the taste of the water was not alkaline, though essentially altered.

4th. I moistened with the water some conserve of wild pinks (the only purple flower that I could find) but no change appeared that could indicate an acid : on the contrary, when I had wet some paper, previously stained with the same flower, the change of colour rather indicated an alkali. By wetting some of the same paper with a mixture of magnesia and water, the same change was produced.

These experiments were made on the water of the upper well : As that of the other two wells is not essentially different, it is needless to mention the result of the experiments made on them ; nor was I very particular in making them.

5th. Observing the appearance of the matter deposited about the lowermost spring (which is a very small one, situated on the other side of the brook, discharging not more perhaps than a barrel of water in twenty four hours, and not before mentioned) and finding the taste of the water sweetish instead of acidulous, not unlike a dilute solution of sal. martis, I suspected that it contained a considerable portion of iron. To determine it, I boiled, for want of nutgalls, some shavings of white oak bark. The decoction was transparent, and of a reddish brown : to one part of this I added two parts of the water ; the mixture became immediately of a dark brown, and lost its transparency.

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From the experiments made on the water of the upper well, particularly from the first, it appears to contain a large quantity of calcareous earth; and from the same experiments, especially the second and third, it is probable, that this earth is suspended in the water by means of fixed air. From the ferruginous film with which these waters are often covered, it seems that they must contain some iron; though the proportion was so small, as not to be observed in the experiments which I made; but from the fifth experiment it is obvious, that the spring there mentioned is a strong chalybeate.

It is obvious that these waters are essentially the same with the acidulæ of Pyrmont, Seltzer, &c. which have so long been famous in Europe. The chemical analysis of those waters, and the experiments relative to the solubility of martial and calcareous earths in water, by the intervention of fixed air, made by Doctor Brownrigg and others, are so well known, it is unnecessary for me to give a particular explanation of the causes of the phenomena observed in the preceding experiments.

Notwithstanding these waters appear, by their chemical analysis, to be similar to the acidulous waters of Europe, they are probably much superiour to them in their medicinal virtue. That they are much more strongly impregnated, particularly with fixed air, is evident. The large quantity of calcareous substances found in these waters, must saturate much of it; yet so much of it remains unsaturated, as to give such a pungency to the water, that a quantity of it held in the mouth for a few seconds, burns it like ardent spirits.

spirits. It is likewise well known, that these waters will burst any glass or earthen vessel, and force their way through any wooden cask, in which they are enclosed. This makes it impossible to transport them, in any considerable quantity, even the smallest distance, unless part of their fixed air be previously discharged. If they remain exposed to the atmosphere, the whole will soon be separated, after which they become dead and vapid.

Considering the vast quantity of fixed air contained in these waters, it is probable that the chalybeate is the strongest of the kind yet discovered. That it is highly impregnated, is evident by the taste. The fixed air, however, so far predominates, as to disguise, in a great measure, its disagreeable sweetness, and prevents its nauseating the stomach. How far the large quantity of saturated calcareous earth which they contain, may affect their medicinal properties, must be left to be determined by future observations.

The want of a proper apparatus put it out of my power to make such an analysis of the waters, as to determine in what proportion the several substances are combined with them in the several springs. There are also some other appearances, worthy the attention of a philosopher, which, for various reasons, I could not enter into an investigation of. It may afford an agreeable amusement to any gentleman of ability and leisure, to prosecute these inquiries. I sincerely wish, that some such would undertake the task ; that the world may be favoured with a full and accurate account of these curiosities.

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This analysis of these waters, imperfect as it is, may enable us to account for the formation of those stony substances which surround them. The fixable air, as it approaches the surface of the water, becomes elastick, and flies off: In consequence of this, the water assumes a milky hue, and some part of the calcareous earth is precipitated. To ascertain the truth of this supposition, I pulverized some of the stones (both of the porous and compact kind) in a mortar. They both appeared perfectly similar to the calcareous earth, procured by evaporating the water, and effervesced in like manner with the vitriolick acid.

From the large quantities of calcareous matter deposited round these wells, and the extent of ground rendered perfectly sterile by the overflowing of the waters, (for there is no kind of vegetation for many rods round on the lower side) I cannot but suppose, that these discharges of water have been much greater heretofore, than they are at present: for were they coeval with the earth, I can hardly conceive that the calcareous deposit from so small quantities of water, should have formed such masses; especially, when it is considered that all kinds of large quadrupeds are very fond of it, and that, 'till lately, this country has been well stocked with them. In effect, they have all the appearance of being in a state of decay. There is one of a small size, within six feet of the conical well, and nearly of the same form, which at present discharges neither air nor water, though it contains the latter, of the same quality with the others.

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I will here make the conjecture which I promised, respecting the cause of the rupture of the rocks near the upper well. That the apparent ruins are the product of some violent convulsion of the earth, cannot be doubted by those who have seen them : and that they could have been produced by an earthquake, the scene of whose immediate action lay at a distance, does not appear probable : the effects are evidently too great. The most reasonable supposition then seems to be, that however extensive the commotion might have been, which attended this explosion of the rocks, the cause of it must have been in the vicinity, and have operated immediately on this mass.

In searching after substances capable of producing such effects, the ledge of calcareous rock (already described) adjoining the springs, presents itself to our view. These rocks, called here lime rocks, are found in this part of the country in very large masses ; and it is probable, that this ledge extends to a considerable distance below the surface. It is well known, that this lime rock contains a large portion of fixed air ; that it is capable of being decomposed by acids, fire, &c. and that the subterranean regions abound with the vitriolick acid, where it unites with various bases, forming the vitriols, allum, &c. If we suppose a quantity of this rock, at a distance from the surface, decomposed by the vitriolick acid, or otherwise, and its fixed air rendered elastick, would not the force with which this air would endeavour to expand itself, be sufficient to produce such an explosion, as would burst asunder the most solid rock ? The principal apertures would probably be immediately closed ; but if the same  
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cause continued to act, it must preserve some spiracula, where it found the least resistance : the explosion would have formed more or less of a cavity within the earth, and this cavity would naturally become a reservoir of water. This water, saturated with the fixed air, continually supplied by the decomposition of the rock, would be a proper menstruum for dissolving the calcareous earth, or iron ore, which it might meet with in its passage ; and before its arrival at the surface of the earth, form the combination which we meet with in the springs. It is, however, but a conjecture ; and one perhaps, that is not capable of being verified : as such, I submit it.

I shall now proceed to complete the execution of my plan, by giving a history of some cases, and the effect of the waters. In these, however, I cannot be very particular, as I had not the precaution to take any minutes.

It may be proper to premise, that these acidulous waters operate sensibly by vomit, stool, and urine. The first happens, only when they are taken on an empty stomach ; and a pretty large quantity is necessary to produce the second. The last, therefore, is the evacuation which they must naturally excite.

The first patients that I sent were about thirty in number. Their disorders were rheumatick, scorbutick complaints, &c. with which old regiments generally abound. They almost all returned perfectly relieved, particularly the rheumatick patients. Indeed I am disposed to believe, as well from the accounts of the people in the vicinity, as from my

my own observation, that in the chronick rheumatism, the waters are a very certain cure.

Among these patients was one, whose case deserves a more particular description. He was a man of about twenty four years of age, of a slender habit, and delicate constitution. He had not been fit for duty much above half the time, for the two years he had served in the regiment; and for five or six months, had been troubled with scrophulous and pulmonick complaints, a pain in his breast, cough, and sometimes a slight hæmoptysis. At this time he had a hectic fever; and I suspected that he had tubercles formed in his lungs, which were about suppurating.

I sent him to the springs in the month of April. By drinking the acidulous water about a fortnight, his symptoms were so far removed, that he has enjoyed tolerable health, and has done his duty in the corps ever since, excepting that very lately he felt some symptoms of his old disorders, which were soon removed by returning to the waters.

I had afterwards two patients, whose livers were left greatly tumefied, indurated, and painful, by an obstinate jaundice; on which the common deobstruents had little or no effect. I sent them to the springs for relief; and within a week they returned perfectly cured.

A girl belonging to Albany, in consequence of a fall on the ice, above two years before, had seven or eight sores broke out on the whole length of her left thigh, which in time became ulcerous. By the advice of Doctor Young, who had very faithfully attended her, she was carried to the springs.

springs. On her way she stopped at the garrison, and I saw her. All the muscles of her thigh were useless; and her knee consequently, destitute of any voluntary motion. Her leg was drawn backwards, and fixed: her thigh was considerably enlarged, and in places, very hard: the ulcers had a foul and angry appearance; and at times she suffered considerable pain. After she had used the waters a fortnight, she returned, and I saw her again. The swelling and induration were removed; her pains were much abated; her knee was more flexible; and her ulcers had assumed a favourable appearance. It is not supposable that in such a case, any course of internal medicines could effect a cure: but, I believe that so much could not have been done towards it, in the same time, by the best medicines of the shops, though ever so judiciously administered; nor, perhaps, in a much longer.

Many people in the vicinity, suppose the waters a cure for intermitting fevers; and when properly used, I have no doubt but that they may be. For this purpose, after using the acidulous waters a few days, recourse must be had to the tonick virtues of the chalybeate. But for want of proper directions, I believe this has not been practised. The advantages derived from them, therefore, were the same that are produced by evacuations, and small doses of tartar emetick, by which the fits may very often be broken, and the disorder sometimes removed. I have made trial of them in but one case of this disorder; and that was before I had discovered the properties of the different springs. The patient

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used the acidulæ alone ; and was only well prepared by them for the use of the bark.

As a practical proof of the tonick power of the chalybeate waters, I might mention the case of a woman whom I found at the springs. She complained, that the acidulous waters (of which alone she had drank for several weeks) reduced her strength. From a persuasion of the astringency of the chalybeate spring, I advised her to drink a moderate quantity of it, for a day or two, and to repeat it occasionally. I saw her again some time after, when she informed me that she had followed my advice, and always found from it, a remarkable restoration of strength.

These are all the cases that are worth mentioning, in which the good effects of the waters were evident ; though perhaps, eighty patients belonging to the regiment may have used them successfully, most of their complaints being of little consequence.

I must not however, omit one case, in which the success attending the use of the waters answered neither my wishes, nor my expectations. An officer in the regiment, a little past the meridian of life, had been for many years, troubled with a tetters eruption, on different parts of his body. It gave him no great uneasiness, 'till the summer of the year 1780, when it fixed on one of his ankles. Notwithstanding many topical applications, it daily gained ground ; and the latter end of the year 1781, after an active campaign, had possessed that whole leg, and part of the other. The disorder would sometimes alternate with his stomach and bowels, producing severe pains, with a copious discharge of foul matter

matter by vomit, and sometimes by stool. The eruption was removed from his legs by a very ingenious surgeon in the American hospital. His stomach was, however, frequently disordered afterwards; and he was, perhaps, on the whole, not much better for the removal of the disease from the surface. During the last winter, his stomach and bowels were frequently much affected; and though his appetite was generally good, yet his digestion was impaired, and few kinds of food would remain on his stomach. Evacuations, with the bark and bitters, yielded a temporary relief; but produced no permanent advantage.

In this situation he resolved, about the middle of April, to try the effect of the springs. From the accounts I had received (for I had not then seen them) I approved of his plan; and he immediately proceeded to execute it. After using the acidulous waters for twelve or fifteen days, he returned to quarters, surprisingly reduced; complaining that "they had torn his stomach all to pieces."

As soon as he had recovered strength enough to ride, he retired from service, and I have not heard from him since. I apprehend that he used the waters imprudently, and that if he had made a judicious use of the two different kinds, he might have found that assistance from them, which he had in vain sought from other medicines. He is fully of this opinion himself; and ascribes their failure to his drinking them in pretty large quantities, when his stomach was too weak to bear them.

I beg leave to subjoin two or three general remarks on the virtues of these waters. From the cases related, I think we may

may conclude, that the acidulous waters possess considerable aperient or deobstruent powers, and may therefore, be useful in most kinds of obstructions. That they share the refrigerant and sedative properties of the acids, cannot be disputed. By these they are well calculated to remove that inflammatory diathesis, which usually accompanies so many disorders, and embarrasses the physician in his prescriptions.

Among the rest, do they not promise to be serviceable in removing that obstinate, though sometimes small, inflammation of the lungs, which so often terminates in a phthisis pulmonalis and death? I think their success in the pulmonick case above related, some proof of it.

The chalybeate water may, without doubt, be an excellent remedy in all cases of simple relaxation, or where that is the primary disorder; and is always at hand to brace up, and invigorate those patients, who are debilitated by the use of the acidulous.

These are a few of the obvious medicinal virtues of these curious springs. But, perhaps, nothing but a series of accurate observations by ingenious practitioners, can determine all their properties and excellencies.

I am, &c.

SAMUEL TENNEY.

DR. FISHER.

P. S. Five months after writing the above, I saw the officer whose case is there related. He informed me, that he got home with difficulty, and for some time declined so fast, that he despaired of recovering. At length, however, his constitution, naturally vigorous, prevailed over his disorder: his strength was restored: for several months he had been entirely

entirely free from any symptoms of his former complaints; and had enjoyed a better state of health than he had for several years before. As he used little or no medicine after drinking the waters, I think we may justly conclude that the acrimony, which for two years had rendered his life miserable, was eradicated by them alone. The pulmonick patient likewise, whose case is there mentioned, continued in good health.

S. TENNEY.

DR. JOSHUA FISHER, F. A. A.

III. *Conjectures of the Natural Causes of the North West Winds being Colder, and more frequent in the Winter in New England, than in the same Degrees of Latitude in Europe, by*  
SAMUEL HALE, Esq. of Portsmouth, F. A. A.

THE attraction of the Moon and Sun makes the current of air and water, on the globe, move continually towards the west, between the tropicks; unless where obstructed by land, high mountains, &c. which causes an eddy, both in the the air and water, in a contrary course beyond the tropicks. And we actually find the gulf stream to be a very strong current, reaching from Cape Florida, along the shore, at unequal distances therefrom, to the Isle of Sable, and Grand Bank. And it is highly probable, that the sand carried by this stream, together with the sand carried down by great rivers into bays, and the current out of those bays meeting with the gulf stream, by their eddies, have made Nantucket Shoals, Cape Cod, George's Bank, Cape Sable Bank, the Isle of Sable, &c. But to return: the wind, which being mostly westerly beyond the tropicks, as an eddy to the tradewind, by passing along upon the tops of the  
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Appalachian, Allegany, and other high mountains, which form a long ridge, back of our settlements, must be made very cold ; or, if the wind should come from the north or northeast on to those mountains, the effect would be the same : For we know, that the snow lies through the summer, upon the tops of very high mountains, such as the Andes, the Alps, *Ætna*, &c. Now, the course of the sea being N. E. and S. W. and the air being made warmer, and consequently lighter, upon the coast, in the winter, than it is upon and near those mountains, this causes a current of air, at right angles with the coast of the sea, that is, a N. W. wind, which coming down from the tops of the mountains, with the increased cold it there contracted, occasions our north west winds to be more constant in the winter, and colder than in other parts of the world, in the same latitude, not so situated. This will also account for the N. W. wind being often colder, and the thermometer lower in Connecticut than in Nova Scotia ; although the latter be so much further north ; as the wind comes down from the tops of higher mountains upon Connecticut. Upon the same principles, our S. W. winds, coming along on the south east side of the ridge of mountains, and not over them, will be warm. This will also make it probable, that the N. W. winds are not so cold on the low lands N. W. of those mountains, as in the same latitudes on the S. E. side ; and the weather, in general, milder. The great lakes N. W. from us never freeze ; and if they did, their ice, when covered with snow, could not affect the air over them, any more than land covered with snow : so that the great lakes, back of us, being heretofore given as the reason of N. W. winds being so very cold, must have

have been a mistake. We can hardly suppose a N. W. wind, coming from the N. W. corner of this continent, without altering its course, to be the cause; if so, why are not the N. E. winds in Europe and Asia, in the same latitudes, as cold?—But we find they are not.

IV. *An Account of Frogs found in the Earth; in a Letter to the Reverend NEHEMIAH WILLIAMS, by Major SAMUEL HITCHCOCK.*

*Brimfield, August 5, 1789.*

S I R,

THE following extract of a letter was written me some time since, by Major Samuel Hitchcock; but by mistake, is but just come to hand. The letter was dated at Manchester, Vermont, November 27th, 1788. The account, contained in this letter, has since been confirmed to me by another gentleman, with this alteration, that the house must be as much as forty or fifty rods from the river.

“ I leave this place, for Burlington on Onion river, in three or four days, where I expect to reside in future. It is handsomely situated on Lake Champlain, and on a very pleasant river. I was informed by a gentleman in that town, of a curiosity, which I cannot forbear mentioning to you.

“ A gentleman of undoubted veracity, who lives about twelve or fifteen rods from the river side, informed me, that he had lately been digging a well by his house, about the same distance from the river. The house is situated on a little eminence, or rise, that overlooks the river and interval adjoining it; which, previous to his clearing it, was covered with a large growth of timber. The stumps appear to be two feet, two and an half, and three feet thick. At about

twenty

twenty or twenty five feet deep, the diggers discovered some small frogs, which appeared to adhere closely to the earth, and perfectly stupified and dead. They threw them out of the well; and when they were exposed to the heat of the sun, in a short time, they appeared to vivify; and soon became full of life and activity. As they still dug deeper, they discovered more of them; which exhibited the same phenomena. My informant told me, that he was himself a witness to as many as twenty or thirty of them.

“At about forty feet depth, they came upon a large stump, at the root of which they discovered a fine spring of water. He showed me a piece of the stump: it resembled button wood. I was particular in my inquiry, whether there were no avenues, or cavities in the earth, leading or communicating with the river; through which the frogs might have passed? He informed me, none; nor any appearance of water. How long those animals must have remained there, it is impossible to determine; but in all probability, they must have been in that inactive state, some hundred years. From the discovery of the stump, it is evident, that the land must have been made land. I conclude, that in some inundation of the river, those animals must have been covered up; and there remained ever since.”

I have nothing to add; but only, from the information that I have received, I cannot question the truth of the above account, however extraordinary it appears.

I have the honour to be,

Your most obedient, and  
very humble servant,

NEHEMIAH WILLIAMS.

CALEB GANNETT, *Esq. Recording Secretary. &c.*

V. *An Estimate of the Excess of the Heat and Cold of the American Atmosphere beyond the European, in the same parallel of Latitude : To which are added, some Thoughts on the Causes of this Excess, by* EDWARD A. HOLYOKE, M. D.  
F. A. A.

P A R T I.

ALMOST from the first discovery of North America, it has been observed, that the extremes of heat and cold are much greater on this side the Atlantick Ocean, than they are in Europe, under the same parallel of latitude. But the quantity of this difference has not hitherto, so far as I am acquainted, been an object of much attention, or been determined with any degree of exactness. A valuable work, annually published for some years past, by a Meteorological Society at Manheim in Germany, entitled *Ephemerides Meteorologicæ Palatinæ*, affords data for determining this point more precisely ; as it contains more numerous and more accurate observations, than any other publication extant.

I have therefore, from this collection, formed a table of the greatest heat and greatest cold, and of the mean of the greatest heat and cold, for a course of years, of twenty different cities in Europe ; the southernmost of which is Rome, in lat.  $41^{\circ} 53'$ , a few minutes southward of Boston ; and the northernmost, Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, in lat.  $59^{\circ} 20'$ , comprehending an extent of upwards of  $17^{\circ}$  of latitude ; and from Rochelle, on the western coast of France, to Buda, the capital of Hungary, comprehending  $20^{\circ}$  of longitude ; which takes in all the middle region of

Europe. To which are added, my own observations of the greatest heat and cold, &c. made at Salem in Massachusetts.

By this table it appears, that of the twenty European cities, mentioned in it, the thermometer was highest at Wartzburg, in the circle of Franconia, viz.  $102^{\circ}.4$ , which falls short of our greatest heat above 3 degrees. The greatest degree of cold happened at Sagan, a city in the western borders of Silesia. There the mercury in the thermometer sank to  $-21^{\circ}.32$ , which exceeds our greatest cold at Salem by  $10^{\circ}.3$ ; but is just as low, as we were informed by the public prints at the time, though I know not upon what authority, that the thermometer fell at Hartford in Connecticut, and at New York, in the month of January 1786. But what is most to our purpose, the *mean* of the greatest heat in all those places, taken collectively, for the period noted in the third column of the table, amounted to no more than  $+86^{\circ}.41$ , which is more than  $10^{\circ}$  short of the mean of our greatest heat at Salem: and the mean of the greatest cold in these twenty cities, amounted to  $+3^{\circ}.31$ , which is short of the mean of our greatest cold upwards of 5 degrees.

But in order to determine the difference between our heat and cold, and the European, in the same latitude, we must compare with those cities, which are situated in latitudes nearest our own, viz. Padua, Marseilles, and Rome. We find by the table, that the mean of their greatest heat falls short of our's  $5^{\circ}.62$ ,  $7^{\circ}.42$ , and  $11^{\circ}.59$ , respectively. We also find the mean of the greatest cold of these three cities is less than our's by  $19^{\circ}.41$ ,  $29^{\circ}.92$ , and  $35^{\circ}.88$ , respectively. Further, the mean of the greatest heat of these three cities,  
taken

taken collectively, which is  $88^{\circ}.1$ , deducted from the mean of our greatest heat, which is  $97^{\circ}.02$ , leaves a difference of  $8^{\circ}.92$  hotter. And the mean of the greatest cold of these cities, being  $+25^{\circ}.96$ , taken from the mean of our greatest cold,  $-2^{\circ}.42$ , gives a difference of  $28^{\circ}.38$  colder.

The air of America then, in our latitude, is hotter in summer (when hottest) by 10 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer\*, and colder in winter (when coldest) by 5 degrees, than the whole middle region of Europe taken collectively, whose mean latitude is about  $49^{\circ}$  or  $50^{\circ}$ , that is, about 7 or 8 degrees more northerly than Boston.

Again, the air of America is hotter in summer, by upwards of 8 degrees, and colder in winter, by 28 degrees, than those parts of Europe, which lie nearly in the same latitude.†

## PART II.

HERE then is a very notable difference in respect both of heat and cold, in two tracts of our globe, which equally enjoy the influence of the sun, that prime source of heat to our system; and it is much greater, I believe, than any one would imagine, who had not attended to observations of this kind: which naturally leads to an inquiry into the cause of so remarkable an excess; for this cause still remains

\* I have all along made use of Fahrenheit's scale, as being much more familiar to us than Reaumur's.

† As these three cities, taken together, lie a degree or two northward of us, the result here given is rather less, than the true.

mains a problem, which has never, I suppose, received a satisfactory solution.

Various conjectures have been formed upon the subject ; one or two of which I will mention. The first, and perhaps, the most commonly received opinion among us, is, "That those lakes and large tracts of inland waters, which lie back of our settlements, being constantly frozen over every winter, expose a large surface of ice to the air ; which being hereby rendered very cold, and being soon waisted to the sea-coast, where our most numerous settlements are situated, occasions that degree of cold, which the inhabitants of North America suffer beyond the Europeans in the same climate." To which I object, 1st. That the winds, which for the most part produce our most intense cold, are not westerly, as upon this hypothesis they ought to be, but north westerly, or still more northerly winds, which last certainly do not blow over any great extent of water in their passage to our coasts. 2d. The cause assigned does not seem adequate to the effect ; for, though the lakes to the westward of us are large, yet they bear but a small proportion to the extent of land, over which the winds must pass, ere they arrive at our settlements. 3d. I suppose that a surface of frozen water does not render the air, that passes over it, in any degree colder, than an equal surface of frozen earth ; for frozen earth is as cold as frozen water ; and all the surface of the ground, between the lakes and us, is frozen every winter, before the lakes themselves are. And, if they do not render the air colder, after they are frozen, than an equal surface of frozen earth ; certainly it cannot  
be

be supposed that they increase the cold, before that period. Add to this, 4th. That this surface of ice, which covers the lakes every winter, is pretty early in the season clothed with snow, more or less deep, as well as the whole surface of these northern countries : Now, no one can suppose that snow, because it lies upon a surface of water or ice, is capable of producing a greater degree of cold in the atmosphere, than if it covered an equal extent of ground. These observations do, I think, evidently shew, that this hypothesis is not admissible.

Others have supposed, "that our woods and thick forests, by harbouring large quantities of snow every winter, and screening it from the action of the sun's rays, do occasion the air, which blows over it, to be much colder, than it would be otherwise, or than it is in Europe." This may indeed in some measure account for the length of our winters, and the sharpness of the winds in the spring ; as the snow will remain longer undissolved, when shaded from the sun, than in the open and cultivated parts of the country : But, I do not conceive how the snow, which lies in the woods, should communicate any extraordinary keenness to the air, beyond that which covers the ground every where in these regions, whether cleared or uncleared, during the winter season.

However, that the woods of America are somehow the occasion of its greater cold, must, I believe, be admitted.

Several writers have observed, that the winter's cold in the old continent was formerly much more severe and intense in the same climate, and the same spot, than it is at this day.

This

This is a remarkable fact, of which, however, I imagine there is sufficient proof. For severe frosts are mentioned by ancient authors, as common events, in particular places, where nothing of the kind occurs now; or, if at some distant intervals they do still sometimes happen, they are constantly noted as very extraordinary.

David, king of Israel, in one of his psalms\* says, "He giveth snow like wool, he scattereth the hoar frost like ashes. He casteth forth his ice like morsels; who can stand before his cold?" And about the time of our Saviour's crucifixion (about the beginning of April) St. John tells us†, that "the servants and officers had made a fire of coals (for it was cold) and they warmed themselves."

And Juvenal makes mention of the freezing of the river Tiber, as a common event in his time.‡ And Ovid talks of frozen wine in countries, where I suppose, very severe frosts are now very unusual.§

If any doubt respecting this point should still remain, I believe it will be much lessened by an attention to what Livy the Roman historian relates, in his account of the second Punick war. There we find, that when the Romans, under the command of Scipio, besieged a town in Spain near the river Ebro, in a latitude a little more southward than our's, he says, "*Nec obsessor alia ulla res quàm iniqua oppug-*  
*nantibus*"

\* Psalm cxlviii. v. 16, 17. It is not material whether David were the author of this psalm, or not.

† John, ch. xviii. v. 18.

‡ Hybernum fracta glacie descendit in amnem. &c. Sat. vi. l. 521.

§ Nudaque consistunt formam servantia testæ

Vina: nec hausta meri, sed data frustra bibunt. Eleg. x.

*nantibus hyems tutabatur. Triginta dies obsidio fuit, per quos raro unquam nix minus quatuor pedes alta jacuit: adeoque pluteos ac vineas Romanorum operuerat, ut ea sola ignibus aliquoties coniectis ab hoste, etiam tutamentum fuerit.*" (Lib. xxi.)

That snow should lie four feet deep on the ground for thirty days together at Taragona or Barcelona (in the neighbourhood of which this town lay) would at the present day, be looked on as a most extraordinary phenomenon indeed. See also Virgil's 3d Georgic.

And, as no change has taken place upon the surface of the earth in that continent, that we are acquainted with, so remarkable, and so likely to have any great influence upon the atmosphere, as that of cutting down and clearing the earth's surface of those woods and thick forests, that abounded every where; may we not probably conjecture that this circumstance is somehow the cause, why it is warmer at Palestine now, than in the days of king David; and at Rome, than it was in the times of the commonwealth, or of the Cæsars?||

Now, it appears highly probable, that the same cause, whatever it was, which rendered Europe colder formerly, than at present, makes America at this day colder, than Europe. America is at this day, in a situation similar to that, which Europe was in, with respect to its woods, thirty or perhaps

|| It appears by the annexed table, that at Rome there does not happen every year, at this day, such a degree of cold, as to sink the thermometer down to the freezing point. The difference then between its atmosphere in Juvenal's day, and the present, must be very great. And, as to Jerusalem, as it lies about 10 degrees further south than Rome, I presume that nothing like a frost ever happens there, at this day.

perhaps thirty five centuries ago. Its surface, excepting about a hundred or a hundred and fifty miles, more or less, along the sea coast, is almost universally covered with thick, and almost impenetrable forests, as is well known to every one. And, as the same causes always produce the same effects, it seems very probable, that the forests of America are in some way or other, instrumental in producing that extra degree of cold, for which our winters are so remarkable.

Taking this therefore for a probable supposition, let us pursue it, and inquire whether it be confirmed by reason and experiment.

Among the many happy discoveries in philosophy and chemistry, with which the celebrated Dr. Priestley has obliged the world, one of very great importance is ; "the property, which the leaves of all plants and vegetables of every kind possess, of yielding, in day light, air of a much purer kind, freer from phlogiston, and fitter for respiration, than common atmospherick air : that they not only furnish large quantities of such air, but have also the faculty of absorbing phlogiston from air, when fouled by a mixture of it, so as to render the same salubrious and respirable, which was before noxious and suffocating ; and thus become, in the hands of the great Author of Nature, one grand corrector of those impurities, which might, otherwise, so far increase, as to contaminate the whole mass of the atmosphere ; and in process of time render it totally unfit for respiration, and the support of animal life." This is a doctrine well established, and needs no new proofs.

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All vegetables then, both in Europe and America, are continually supplying the atmosphere with this pure air, and counteracting those phlogisticating processes, such as combustion, respiration, putrefaction, &c. which are continually going on in all parts. But there is this material difference between the two continents. In Europe, upon the coming on of the frosty season, the leaves of all vegetables, on or near the earth's surface, languish; and, if they do not die, yet most probably they perform their office of dephlogisticating the air, in a much more languid manner, than in summer; or are perhaps entirely covered with snow, which, while it continues on them, must effectually put a stop to this process; and as to the trees, their leaves for the most part drop off, and no more pure air is to be expected from them, till they are again renewed in the spring. But in America, although the leaves of all vegetables on the earth's surface are frozen and killed early in the winter, and the leaves of many of our trees fall off, and yield no more of this pure air, than the European trees; yet, there is a constant and large supply of it, from those vast quantities of pine trees, firs, spruce, cedars, junipers, firs, hemlocks, and other ever-greens, which retain their leaves through the intensest frosts, and which do greatly abound in our American woods, from the 30th to the 50th degree of N. latitude; a quantity sufficient, perhaps, to cover one 5th or 6th of the whole surface of the continent of Europe.

That our evergreens do in fact yield, during the winter season, such a pure air, I have several times found by experiment. My experiments were conducted in the manner,

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in which Drs. Priestley and Ingenoufz conducted their's; and I constantly found air produced from the leaves of juniper and pine (the only ones I have yet made trial of) in the same manner, as from other leaves in summer.\* But it ought to be observed, that this manner of experimenting cannot be prosecuted, when the water is colder than 32 degrees by Fahrenheit's thermometer, as the water would then be converted into ice; but it appears reasonable to suppose, if as much air is produced in these experiments, when the thermometer is at 34° or 35°, as when it mounts to 70° or 80°, that the weather, though much colder, would make no material alteration in the result. This fact then is not to be considered as fully established (though I believe, whenever proper and decisive experiments are made, it will be confirmed) but as in a good degree probable.

This being allowed, what a fund of pure dephlogisticated air have we here in America, beyond what Europe at present possesses. There are no doubt evergreens of various kinds scattered all over Europe; yet it cannot be supposed, that the quantities bear any proportion to those, which once flourished there; especially in the southern and middle regions of that continent; and as to Scandinavia, where I suppose

\* I have not yet had either time or opportunity, to prosecute experiments upon evergreens, as I could wish, or as I promise myself I may have; but, from what I have experienced, I think it no extravagant supposition, that a pine tree of a common size should yield four barrels of pure dephlogisticated air in one clear fair day; to which, if we add that as much phlogiston is absorbed in the same time, as an equal quantity of common atmospherick air contains; we may readily imagine, that, in a country abounding with trees of this kind, the atmosphere must be much more dephlogisticated in winter, than in a country, where evergreens are rarely met with.

pose they abound most at present, I imagine they must be very much thinned by this time. But what will all these amount to, when brought into a comparison with the ever-greens of America?

From these considerations I think it must appear highly probable, that America is furnished with sources of dephlogisticated air, which are now exhausted in Europe; and that therefore, most probably, its atmosphere is really more pure and dephlogisticated.

Whether this be in reality the fact, may be determined most satisfactorily from meteorological observations. For the sensible qualities of the atmosphere, which are the objects of meteorology, may, if properly attended to, and noted down for a course of years, determine not only which country enjoys the dryest and purest air; but also the quantity of the difference (if any there be) may as easily and as precisely be known, as the difference of their heat and cold.

To such observations then we must recur; and, if we are enabled to determine—the quantity of evaporation—the quantity of rain—the number of clear fair days—the number of cloudy days—of rainy days—and of foggy days, in each continent, for a competent course of years, there is no doubt but the point may be satisfactorily determined. This I shall next attempt; after premising that we have not yet, perhaps, observations enough to settle the matter without all doubt; yet enough, I imagine, to shew that it is in the highest degree probable, that the climate of America is much drier in general, than that of Europe.\* The

\* Perhaps the most direct way of determining the dryness of the atmosphere is by the hygrometer; but till this instrument is more improved, than at present, and observations

The quantity of evaporation in any country must, I think, depend principally, if not entirely, upon the three circumstances of—dryness—heat—and motion, of the air, contiguous to the evaporating surface.\* For the dryer the air, the more capable it is of absorbing a certain quantity of water in a given time ; for when fully saturated with water, as in a foggy season, little or no evaporation takes place. Heat too is found to promote evaporation, probably as it lessens the cohesion of the particles of water : and the wind, not only by agitating the evaporating surface, but also by applying fresh portions of air to the same, tends greatly to promote this process.

Now, all these circumstances conspire with us in America, in a greater degree than in Europe, to increase the dryness upon the surface of the earth. And such a degree of dryness does in fact take place here, as much more frequently to injure our crops, and frustrate the hopes of the husbandman, than in Europe.

The proof of this point however, from actual observation, according to the *Ephemerides Meteorologicæ*, is rather lame ; for of the six or seven places mentioned in that work, which can be easily brought into a comparison with those of Dr. Williams in the same work, which are the only American ones, which I have met with, two, if I understand them, exceed his considerably : all the rest indeed fall much short ;

observations have been made upon it for some competent time in both continents ; this mode of determining it must remain a desideratum.

\* Electricity may perhaps be considered as another cause promotive of evaporation ; but then I suppose it probable, that its effect in promoting evaporation, may be very much in proportion to the dryness of the atmosphere.

short ; for the mean evaporation of those seven places does not amount to quite 45 inches, for the year 1785 ; whereas the evaporation at Cambridge the same year, by Dr. Williams' account, was upwards of 56 inches.

The great difference in the quantity of rain, which falls in different countries annually, makes this a remarkable article in the meteorological register. We are informed by Dr. Lind,\* that at Senegal in Africa there falls, in the four rainy months, 115 inches depth of rain ; and by the Ephemerides so often quoted, that at St. Petersburg, in Russia, in the year 1785, there fell short of 12 inches.† Now I think it almost certain, that the quantity of rain, that falls yearly in any country, provided it be sufficient for the purposes of vegetation, must be very much in proportion to the annual quantity of evaporation, in the same region. For a very trifling quantity would any where be enough, if none of it were to pass off by evaporation ; as, on the other hand, scarcely any assignable quantity would be sufficient, if the whole of it were suddenly exhaled. The drier the air is then, in any large extent of country, the more rain is required to support vegetation in its full vigour. So that the comparative dryness of the atmosphere, in any two countries, may be pretty fairly inferred from the annual quantity of rain, which falls in each of those countries respectively, for a course of years ; provided vegetation be equally vigorous in both.

From

\* Diseases of hot climates.

† And we are not informed that this year was remarkably dry there.

From the many registers, which have been published of the depth of rain, which falls in a great number of places in Europe, and for a long course of years, it appears, that the medium quantity of rain in that quarter of the globe scarcely equals, but certainly does not exceed, 30 inches from year to year. But in America, viz. at Ipswich-Hamlet, by the observations of the Rev. Mr. Cutler, upon a mean of five years (the last of which, viz. 1787, was rather a dry one) there fell inches 49. 472. And by Dr. William's observations at Cambridge, there fell in 1785, inches 47. 616.—And by the observations of the Rev. Mr. French at Andover, there fell there, on a mean of the seven last years, inches 51. 2. annually.

The number of fair unclouded days, which happen in the course of a year, for several years together, in any place, must also give some indication of the dryness of the atmosphere of that country; for, as clouds are formed from the moisture existing in the air, a freedom from them must indicate a deficiency of moisture; that is, the air must be drier. Now it appears from the *Ephemerides Meteorologicæ Palatinæ*, that the mean number of fair days, by observations made in twenty different cities in different parts of Europe,\* amounted only to sixty three, or sixty four, and that the same year at Cambridge there were one hundred and seventy three such days. To which I may add, that by my own observations at Salem, upon a mean of seven years, we had one hundred and thirty fair days annually.

The

\* Viz. Those mentioned in the annexed table.

The number of cloudy days in these same twenty cities was in 1785, upon a mean, one hundred and thirteen, or one hundred and fourteen; but at Cambridge there were only sixty nine; and at Salem, upon a mean of seven years, about ninety five days annually.

The number of days, which were partly cloudy, in those same cities was one hundred and seventy four, or one hundred and seventy five; at Cambridge but one hundred and twenty three; and at Salem annually, for seven years, one hundred and twenty upon a mean.

The number of rainy days in those cities was upon a mean 122; at Cambridge only 88; and at Salem 95 annually, for seven years.

The number of foggy days in those cities was sixty seven; at Cambridge sixteen; and at Salem, for seven years, twenty one days annually.

As to hygrometrical observations, we unluckily have none to compare with the European ones; excepting only those made by the illustrious Dr. Franklin, and communicated in a letter to Mr. Nairne on hygrometers, published in the 2d. vol. of the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society at Philadelphia; by which it appears, that the air of Philadelphia is drier, not only than that of Great Britain, but also than that of Passy, in France. This evidence seems to be direct.

Our evaporation then is greater, than the European; our quantity of rain, much greater: we have more clear fair days;

days ; we have fewer cloudy days ; and fewer foggy days ; and fewer rainy days.\*

Thus, by every method of comparing the two atmospheres, the American appears to exceed the European in point of dryness. And, although perhaps no one of all these facts, brought to prove our atmosphere drier than that of Europe, does, when taken singly, determine any thing very satisfactory ; yet, when they are all fairly and candidly laid together, the proof arising from their joint evidence amounts to a very high degree of probability.

It may now perhaps be thought incumbent upon me, to shew how a greater purity and dryness of the atmosphere, should occasion greater degrees of cold, or heat ; or that I should point out the process of Nature in generating heat or cold from dryness and dephlogistication.† And many probable reasons drawn from chemistry, and many very plausible conjectures might be adduced, to prove and illustrate this point. But, as it seems generally supposed, that all the theories of heat, hitherto proposed, are rather imperfect ; or, however that may be, as I must freely confess myself

\* In the summer season, as there are more phlogisticating processes going on in Europe, to render the air foul, than in America, such as combustion, respiration, putrefaction, &c. so in the latter it is probable, that, at this season, the vast number of trees, in addition to the vegetables, which grow nearer to the earth's surface, in as great plenty as in Europe, must furnish a larger proportion of this purer air : so that in the hot, as well as the cold seasons of the year, America must have the advantage of Europe in this particular.

† I have used the terms *dry*, *pure*, and *dephlogisticated*, as synonymous, or at least have considered them, as qualities accompanying each other in the same state of the atmosphere. But, that they are always necessarily and physically connected I do not pretend to assert ; that they commonly do accompany each other, I believe to be certain.

self too little acquainted with its nature, to enter upon such a discussion, I would rather refer to observation and experiment.

Now it is, I believe, matter of constant and universal experience, at least in this country, and I suppose every where in cold countries, that the most intense cold always happens in the purest, driest, and most dephlogisticated state of the atmosphere ; or, that we never have our intensest frost, but when the air is in this state. That the air is very dry at such times, appears from the shrinking of wood, and all vegetable and animal substances, &c. That it is in a dephlogisticated state, appears from the rapid consumption of fuel, and the great tendency to scorch observable at such times in our ordinary fires ; from the increased brightness and magnitude of the flame of candles and lamps ; and from many other circumstances, which might be mentioned. The weather indeed is frequently raw cold, as we vulgarly phrase it, and excessively uncomfortable, when the atmosphere is in a very humid state. The most disagreeably cold weather, which we have in winter, happens, when the air is in this damp state ; but the thermometer at such times is never at, or near its lowest stations ; perhaps never nearer, than 15 degrees or upwards.

Further, although the weather is frequently, during summer, most disagreeably hot and irksome to our feelings, when the air is very damp and phlogisticated, as appears by effects directly opposite to those just now enumerated, as the consequences of dephlogistication ; yet, so far as my observa-

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tion reaches, the thermometer is never at its highest, at such times, but commonly 6 or 8 degrees below it.\*

Whence I think it may fairly be inferred (whether we are able to account for it philosophically or not) that dryness or dephlogistication, are in fact and nature, necessary to the production of our intensest cold ; and probably of our intensest heat. And if so, is it not natural to suppose, that when the atmosphere of any country is usually both in summer and winter much dryer, and more dephlogisticated, than another, that, *cæteris paribus*, it should be hotter in summer, and colder in winter there, than in that other ?

But, allowing all that has hitherto been advanced upon this subject, I would not hastily conclude, that the superiour dryness and dephlogistication of our atmosphere is alone sufficient to account for the whole of our superiour heat and cold. There are probably other causes, which conspire with it to produce the same effect. I shall mention one, which I think of considerable moment.

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\* It may perhaps, have the appearance of paradox, to ascribe two such opposite effects, as heat and cold, to the same cause ; but this appearance will in a good measure vanish, if it should be found, as I suppose it may, that dephlogistication produces cold, by its *chemical* effect upon the air : But that it produces heat only *mechanically*, by inducing a more perfectly pellucid state of the atmosphere, whereby fewer of the sun's rays are intercepted ; and (as dephlogisticated air is specifically heavier by much, than common atmospherick air) by occasioning a greater weight and density of the air, near the earth's surface, whereby the sun's influence in producing heat is greatly increased. These considerations may serve to shew, why cold is so much more increased, by a dephlogisticated state of the atmosphere than heat. And it is observable, that the difference between two thermometers, one of which is exposed to the sun's direct rays, and the other in the shade, is always, *cæteris paribus*, much greater in a dephlogisticated, than in a phlogisticated state of the atmosphere.

All coasts, which border upon a large ocean, in cold climates, must, during the season of winter, be warmed by winds which blow from the ocean upon them; plainly for this reason, that the waters of the sea in those latitudes never become so cold by many degrees, as the surface of the earth: so likewise, in those same regions, the water of the sea never becomes, during the summer, so warm as the earth's surface; and therefore, at this season, winds blowing from the sea upon the land, cool the air.

Now, it appears by the *Ephemerides Meteorologicæ Palatinæ*, that the winds, which are most prevalent in Europe, blow from the West, or at least from that semicircle of the horizon; more especially during the summer and winter months. Westerly winds then, must cause the air of Europe to be warmer in winter, and colder in summer, than those that blow from the opposite quarter; because that continent lies eastward of the great Atlantick ocean. The directly opposite effect takes place in North America, from the same cause; that is to say, the winds, which prevail most with us, particularly in the hot and cold seasons, are likewise from the western quarter; for in the vernal and autumnal seasons, they are commonly more variable, and blow more frequently from the eastward, than in summer or winter.\* We therefore, feel less of the warming effects of the sea air in winter, as well as less of its cooling ones in summer; because

\* Upon examining a number of American meteorological registers for a course of several years, I do not find more than one month in sixteen or eighteen, in which easterly winds predominate; but I find seven or eight in a year upon an average, in which they blow almost constantly from the westward.

cause our coasts lie westward of the ocean. Thus, the winds which prevail most in Europe, tend to mitigate both the heat and the cold, to which its geographical situation exposes it; as, on the contrary, the same winds increase both the cold of winter and heat of summer, on the American coasts.\*

But upon the supposition, that westerly winds are most prevalent in the middle latitudes all round the globe, which seems rather a probable conjecture, if we consider the facts just mentioned; and further, that the course of the trade winds in the torrid zone is continually from the eastward; it ought to follow, that the eastern coast of Asia, as well as the eastern coast of America, should be colder, than the western coast of Europe, or than the western coast of America, under the same parallel. And that such a difference does really obtain, seems to appear from the account given by the writer of Captain Cook's last voyage, who informs us that vegetation was in great forwardness in the month of April, at Nootka or King George's Sound, on the western side of N. America, in the latitude  $49^{\circ} 36' N.$  in the year 1778: Whereas the next year, at the bay of Awatska, in Kamtschatka, on the eastern coast of Asia, in lat.  $53^{\circ} 38'$ , the snows were not gone, nor was there any appearance of vegetation, till the middle of May. Which, if to be relied on, as

\* Stockholm in Sweden lies in lat.  $59^{\circ} 20' N.$  and Tobolski in Siberia, in  $58^{\circ} 12'$ ; yet it is found by observation that the usual cold in the latter, very much exceeds that of the former. Now, Tobolski is  $50^{\circ}$  of long. more easterly than Stockholm; of course so much further from the Atlantick ocean. Doth not this observation confirm the truth of our hypothesis?

as the common course of things, is a strong confirmation of the doctrine just proposed.\* †

But it is more than time to close this paper, already much too lengthy ; which I shall do, after observing that, although I know not whether either, or both the causes herein suggested, may be judged adequate to the effects, which I have ascribed to them ; yet I think we must admit the operation of some partial or local cause (such as greater dephlogistication) to account for the greater degree of cold in Europe formerly, than at present—as well as of some general cause (such as the general course of winds from the westward in the temperate zone) to account for

\* It is a common observation among those of our navigators, who frequently traverse the Atlantick, in or near our latitude, that westerly winds are of all, others, the most usual ; which has occasioned the sailors to call the passage from the eastward *uphill*. And it is observed in Mr. Walter's Account of Anson's Voyage, that, in the Pacifick ocean, in the latitude of  $30^{\circ}$  or  $32^{\circ}$  North, the winds almost constantly blow from the westward, though in but moderate gales ; but that in more northerly latitudes, as  $40^{\circ}$  or  $45^{\circ}$ , there are steady westerly winds ; the writer therefore supposes, that the Accapulco ship might perform her voyage in much less time, if she stood further to the northward, *where westerly winds constantly prevail*, than she does, while she pursues her old tract. These observations are additional proofs of the hypothesis advanced in this paragraph. Whether westerly winds prevail in the southern temperate zone, I know not ; but, if they do, the western coast of South America is probably warmer than the eastern, in latitudes similar to ours. If the course of the winds in our latitudes be generally from the west, will not this circumstance alone occasion the atmosphere of Europe to be more humid than the American, as the air from the sea must be more charged with the watery vapours, than the land air ?

† Vassennius in his Geography, page 609, 4th Edition, Lond. informs us, that in "the north part of China, though in a latitude not more northern than Italy, the cold feels very sharp, and the great rivers and lakes are frozen"—and page 611, that "In Japan, which extends from  $31^{\circ}$  to  $39^{\circ}$  N. they have a cold snowy wet winter."

for the greater degree of cold on the eastern confines of Asia, than on the western of America.

Be this however as it may, I flatter myself that, what is here offered, may excite some persons of taste and leisure for such inquiries, to attend to the subjects here treated, and to examine with freedom the theory here advanced ; that so, if it shall be found agreeable to reason and experience, it may be illustrated and confirmed ; or, if otherwise, that it be confuted and exploded.

Salem, September, 1788.

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POSTSCRIPT,

*To a Paper entitled, An Estimate of the Excess of the greatest Heat and greatest Cold of the American Atmosphere beyond the European, under the same Parallel of Latitude, &c.*

SINCE the Academy did me the honour to read a paper I presented them in November 1788, entitled, *An Estimate of the Excess of the Heat and the Cold, &c.* I have had the pleasure of reading in the Philosophical Transactions, Vol. lxxvii. Article xv. an account of some very curious experiments made by our countryman Sir Benjamin Thompson, at Manheim, in the Palatinate in Germany ; by which it appears that eider-down, cotton wool, raw silk, &c. yield as much and as pure dephlogisticated air, as the leaves of any kind of vegetables by the same process ; that is, by exposing them, when immersed in water, to the action of the sun's rays : and therefore, that most probably, this pure air is derived from the water in which they are thus immersed, and not from the substances, whether vegetable, animal, or mineral,

mineral, which are thus heated. Whence it seems to follow, that it is far from certain that any such pure air, or indeed any air at all, is derived from the leaves of plants exposed to the sun, as was suggested and seemed to be proved, by the experiments of Drs. Priestley, Ingenhousz, and others. If this be really the truth of the case, and air is not produced from the leaves of vegetables, as in the paper just now mentioned I have supposed it to have been; then, all the subsequent reasoning upon this hypothesis is void of foundation, and must fall to the ground. But it ought to be noted, that the facts and observations contained in the *Estimate*, which shew our atmosphere to be really *drier* than the European, are not at all affected by the failure of this hypothesis, but remain in their full force, though I may have mistaken the cause, when I attributed it to the purity of the air derived from the leaves of vegetables.

Further, since writing the paper before mentioned, I have accidentally been informed of a fact, which confirms the idea, that our evergreens are, if not the cause of dephlogisticating the air, yet somehow the cause of an increase of cold. The fact I mean is, *that frosts are commonly observed to appear much earlier every autumn, as well as later in the spring, in the neighbourhood of pine and other evergreen woods, than in other places, or than in the neighbourhood of other woods which drop their leaves in the winter.* And this I find confirmed by every one I have since inquired of, whose business or situation leads them to attend to the matter; and I am told, it is a common observation, though I confess I never heard of it, before I presented the paper to the Academy.

If

88 *Dr. HOLYOKE's Estimate of the Excess of Heat and Cold.*

If this observation be well founded, then (whatever may be the fate of Dr. Priestley's and Dr. Ingenhoufsz's experiments) our pine woods are a source of cold, which Europe is now in a great measure deprived of; as there is no doubt but that trees of the evergreen, as well as of every other kind, are now few, and thinly scattered over that continent, compared with what they must have been in past ages, or than they are in America at present.

*Salem, November, 1790.*

*A TABLE of the greatest HEAT and COLD, and of the Mean of the greatest Heat and Cold, collected from Observations made for a course of Years in twenty different Cities in Europe; as exhibited in the Ephemerides Meteorologicae Palatinae: and at Salem, in North America, for seven Years: shewing the Excess both of Heat and Cold in America, beyond that of Europe in the same Latitudes; by the Thermometers both of Mr. Reaumur, and Fahrenheit.*

Names of Places	Lat. north	Year	Greatest Heat by thermom. of		Mean of the greatest heats.		Greatest Cold by thermom. of		Mean of the greatest Colds.	
			Reaumur.	Fahrenheit.	Reaumur.	Fahrenheit.	Reaumur.	Fahrenheit.	Reaumur.	Fahrenheit.
Stockholm	59:20	3	+24,8	+87,80	+23, 1	+83,98	-21,5	-16,37	-18,75	-10,19
Copenhagen	55:40	4	+22,6	+85,10	+22,12	+81,77	-13,8	+0,98	-12, 9	+2,98
Berlin	52:32	4	+28,0	+95, 0	+25, 5	+89,37	-15,8	-3,55	-14, 5	-0,62
Sagan	51:42	5	+28,6	+96,35	+26,16	+90,86	-23,7	-21,32	-19,66	-12,23
Erfurt	51:04	5	+27,6	+94,10	+25, 6	+89, 6	-20,5	-14, 1	-15, 6	-3, 1
Mons	50:25	5	+28,0	+95, 0	+25, 4	+89,15	-17,5	-7,37	-23, 7	+1,18
Prague	50:04	4	+28,3	+96,35	+26, 7	+92,07	-22,0	-17, 5	-19, 9	-12,77
Wurtzburg	49:46	5	+31,3	+102,4	+27, 5	+93,87	-22,4	-18, 4	-16, 0	-4, 0
Manheim	49:27	5	+27,2	+93,15	+25, 6	+89, 6	-18,2	-8,95	-13, 7	+1, 2
Ratisbon	48:56	4	+28,7	+96,57	+21, 2	+79, 7	-20,2	-13,45	-15, 3	-2,42
Buda	47:40	4	+27,0	+92,75	+26, 1	+90, 7	-15,2	-2, 2	-12,77	+4,26
Peiffenberg	47:47	5	+23,3	+84,35	+19, 6	+76, 1	-18,2	-8,95	-14, 1	+0,28
M. St. Andex		5	+25,6	+89,60	+25, 7	+89, 8	-17,6	-7,60	-13, 5	+1,13
Tegernsee	47:37	5	+24,5	+87,12	+22, 9	+83, 5	-19,7	-12,32	-13, 9	+0,73
St. Gotthard	46:31	4	+15,5	+66,87	+13, 5	+62, 3	-19,0	-10,75	-16, 3	-4,67
Geneva	46:12	3	+27,0	+92,75	+25, 3	+88, 9	-13,4	+1,85	-9, 7	+10, 2
Rochelle	46:09	4	+27,5	+93, 9	+26, 0	+90, 5	-9,5	+10,63	-6, 7	+16,93
Padua	45:22	5	+29,0	+97,25	+26, 4	+91, 4	-10,8	+7, 7	-6, 7	+16,93
Marfeilles	43:17	3	+26,0	+90, 5	+25, 6	+89, 6	-3,5	+24,13	-2, 0	+27, 5
Rome	41:53	4	+24,3	+86,67	+23,75	+85,43	-0,4	+31, 1	+0,65	+33,46
Mean					+24,19	+86,41			-12,75	+3,31
Salem, N.A.	42:31	7	+32,9	+106	+28, 9	+97,02	-19, 1	-11, 0	-15, 3	-2,42

# Dr. HOLYOKE's Table of Results.

89

VI. A Table of Results, from a Course of Observations made on the Heat of the Atmosphere, by Fahrenheit's Thermometer, in the Years 1786, 1787, 1788, 1789, 1790, 1791, and 1792, at Salem, in Massachusetts, Lat.  $42^{\circ} 34' N$ . Shewing the Mean Heat of each Month, at four Observations per Day, and the Mean of each Observation:—The hottest and coldest Day in each Month; and the greatest Variation of the Thermometer in 24 Hours:—The Number of Days in each Year, in which the Thermometer rose to  $80^{\circ}$  and upwards; the Number of Days to  $90^{\circ}$  and upwards; and the hottest Day:—The Number of Days, in which the Thermometer sunk to  $32^{\circ}$  and below; the Number of Days to Zero and below; and the coldest Day. To which are added, Results from the whole; which shew the Mean Temperature of each Month, Season, Year, &c. &c. By EDWARD AUGUSTUS HOLYOKE, M. D. F. A. A.

1786.

1787.

Mean of each time of observation, and of each month, at 4 observations per day.	Mth.	8 A.M.	Noon	③ P.M.	Mean of Month.	Mth.	8 A.M.	Noon	③ P.M.	Mean of Month.
	Jan.	22. 5	30. 2	21. 7	24. 8	Jan.	23. 9	30. 6	26. 6	23. 7
	Feb.	27. 2	34. 7	24. 7	28. 63	Feb.	21. 5	30. 2	25. 6	22. 1
	Mar.	38. 7	45. 7	34. 8	39. 73	Mar.	34. 5	42. 2	36. 6	31. 1
	Apr.	43. 3	48. 5	30. 7	40. 8	Apr.	43. 4	53. 1	46. 1	40. 6
	May	58. 3	62. 6	50. 6	57. 17	May	56. 6	61. 9	54. 4	49. 8
	June	72. 1	79. 5	64. 4	71. 6	June	66. 6	71. 5	63. 6	59. 5
	July	71. 2	78. 5	64. 2	71. 3	July	69. 8	76. 5	67. 1	62. 7
	Aug	68. 6	75. 1	63. 1	68. 9	Aug	70. 8	77. 8	69. 5	62. 7
	Sep.	60. 6	69. 1	57. 8	62. 5	Sep.	59. 8	67. 2	60. 5	55. 1
	Oct.	53. 7	63. 3	50. 5	55. 6	Oct.	48. 3	56. 5	48. 7	43. 1
	Nov.	32. 9	39. 6	31. 7	34. 7	Nov.	39. 8	47. 5	40. 5	38. 1
	Dec.	24. 7	31. 4	23. 6	26. 56	Dec.	28. 4	35. 6	31. 6	27. 2
Mean	47. 82	54. 74	43. 1	48. 53	Mean	46. 83	54. 2	47. 47	42. 86	

The hottest and coldest day; the greatest variation in any 24 hours; and range of each month.		Hottest day.	Coldest day.	Greatest change in 24 hours.	Range of each month.		Hottest day.	Coldest day.	Greatest change in 24 hours.	Range of each month.
	Jan.	22 <sup>d</sup> 48 <sup>o</sup>	17 <sup>th</sup> 11 <sup>o</sup>	21 <sup>st</sup> 32 <sup>o</sup>	59 <sup>o</sup>	Jan.	3 <sup>d</sup> 48 <sup>o</sup>	19 <sup>th</sup> 5 <sup>o</sup>	19 <sup>th</sup> 29 <sup>o</sup>	53 <sup>o</sup>
	Feb.	27 50	11 11	11 30	39	Feb.	12 50	10 —3	11 40	53
	Mar	26 78	10 25	27 21	53	Mar	19 62	8 16	24 27	46
	Apr.	16 63	2 25	11 15	38	Apr.	4 75	2 22	5 28	53
	May	28 71	4 45	21 17	26	May	6 78	15 42	6 22	36
	June	4 93	9 55	4 30	38	June	14 91	7 50	27 23	41
	July	16 91. 5	28 55	27 25	36. 5	July	8 91	17 55	8 24	36
	Aug	5 89	27 52	6 17	37	Aug	9 89	1 53	9 19	36
	Sep.	30 80	23 42	30 24	38	Sep.	10 87	15 44	12 17	43
	Oct.	1 85	31 29	18 22	56	Oct.	3 70	18 32	4 25	38
	Nov	7 59	28 4	28 30	55	Nov	15 65	2 25	15 24	30
	Dec.	31 45	12 —5	13 30	50	Dec.	5 48	16 12	6 17	36

Days on which thermometer was at 80° and upwards, at 90° and upwards, and hottest day.	Thermometer at 80° and upwards, in	Thermom. at 90° and upwards, in	Thermometer at 80° and upwards, in	Thermometer at 90° and upwards, in
	June 13 days	June 1 day	June 10 days	June 1
	July 11	July 3	July 13	July 1
	August 8	4	August 13	2
	September 2		September 2	
	35	Hottest day. June 4th, 93°	38	Hottest day. June 4 <sup>th</sup> and July 8 <sup>th</sup> 91°

Days on which thermometer was at 32° and under, at 0 and under, and the coldest day.	Thermometer at 32° and below, in	Thermom. at 0° and under, in	Thermometer at 32° and under, in	Thermom. at 0° and under, in
	January 27 days	January 3 days	January 25 days	January 1
	February 25	December 1	February 27	February 3
	March 9	—	March 17	—
	April 3	4	April 6	4
	October 1	—	October 1	—
	November 18	Coldest day. Jan. 17th, —11°	November 9	Coldest day. Jan. 19th, —5°.
December 25		December 26		
	108		111	

## Dr. HOLYOKE's Table of Results.

1788

1789

Mean of each time of observation, and of each month, at observations per day.	1788						1789					
	Mth.	8 A.M.	Noon	6 P.M.	10 P.M.	Mean of Month	Mth.	8 A.M.	Noon	6 P.M.	10 P.M.	Mean of Month
The hottest and coldest day; the greatest variation in any 24 hours; and range of each month.	Jan.	19. 3	27. 7	24. 2	19. 5	22. 67	Jan.	24. 1	30. 1	26. 4	23. 7	26. 05
	Feb.	20. 3	28. 3	23. 8	20. 5	23. 2	Feb.	18. 9	28. 4	22. 4	17. 1	21. 7
	Mar.	33. 1	39. 3	34. 4	30. 3	34. 27	Mar.	33. 7	39. 5	31. 8	31. 1	34. 1
	Apr.	43. 8	52. 2	43. 2	41. 9	45. 27	Apr.	44. 3	51. 6	45. 2	40. 3	45. 35
	May	55. 3	62. 7	55. 2	51. 6	56. 2	May	54. 8	58. 7	50. 2	46. 1	52. 42
	June	64. 5	70. 3	63. 1	59. 4	64. 32	June	68. 2	76. 7	67. 1	62. 3	68. 57
	July	72. 1	81. 8	70. 5	66. 6	72. 07	July	72. 1	79. 1	69. 9	65. 6	71. 65
	Aug.	69. 2	78. 4	68. 3	66. 5	70. 6	Aug.	69. 6	76. 9	69. 7	65. 7	70. 47
	Sep.	60. 9	72. 5	62. 7	55. 3	62. 85	Sep.	59. 3	68. 7	62. 6	57. 1	61. 92
	Oct.	46. 4	55. 1	49. 8	45. 5	49. 17	Oct.	42. 7	51. 5	46. 3	41. 6	45. 52
	Nov.	41. 3	49. 7	45. 7	40. 6	44. 3	Nov.	39. 3	45. 3	41. 3	38. 8	41. 17
	Dec.	24. 3	31. 5	28. 1	24. 9	27. 2	Dec.	31. 2	37. 2	34. 1	31. 1	33. 37
Mean		45. 87	54. 12	47. 40	43. 55	47. 676	Mean	46. 5	53. 64	47. 25	43. 35	47. 68
Days on which thermometer was at 80° and upwards, at 90° and upwards, and hottest day.	Jan.	29 <sup>th</sup> 40°	14 <sup>th</sup> —1°	14 <sup>th</sup> 26°	41°		Jan.	29 <sup>th</sup> 41°	7 <sup>th</sup> 9°	8 <sup>th</sup> 21°	32°	
	Feb.	3 44	5 —2	5 26	46		Feb.	11 40	2 —2	3 26	42	
	Mar.	31 58	2 8	31 21	50		Mar.	12 51	4 10	4 31	61	
	Apr.	19 67	21 32	2 26	35		Apr.	19 66	21 32	21 24	34	
	May	21 76	11 41	22 27	35		May	30 85	1 38	31 26	47	
	June	7 89	15 51	8 28	38		June	30 94	1 52	10 20	42	
	July	12 93	1 56	12 38	37		July	24 94. 5	4 57	4 33	27	
	Aug.	29 88	31 54	5 18	34		Aug.	11 91	28 50	29 22	41	
	Sep.	5 85	20 42	30 29	43		Sep.	21 85	19 46	29 18	39	
	Oct.	12 68	30 21	13 29	47		Oct.	20 61	30 29	21 17	32	
	Nov.	5 77	24 21	25 41	56		Nov.	14 58	18 20	23 20	38	
	Dec.	15 52	24 —4	16 24	56		Dec.	7 56	19 14	19 22	42	
Days on which thermometer was at 80° and upwards, at 90° and upwards, and hottest day.	Thermometer at 80° and upwards in					Thermom. at 90° and upwards in	Thermometer at 80° and upwards in					Thermom. at 90° and upwards in
	June 5 days					July 1 day	May 1 days					June 4 days
Days on which thermometer was at 32° and under, at 0° and under, and the coldest day.	July 13					1	June 12					July 5
	August 8					Hottest day. July 12th, 93°	July 13					August 1
Days on which thermometer was at 32° and under, at 0° and under, and the coldest day.	September 1					27	August 11					10
							September 1					Hottest day. July 24th, 94°. 5
Days on which thermometer was at 32° and under, at 0° and under, and the coldest day.	Thermometer at 32° and under in					January 30 days	Thermom. at 0° and under in					January 28 days
	February 26					February 2	February 26					February 3
Days on which thermometer was at 32° and under, at 0° and under, and the coldest day.	March 19					December 2	March 16					3
	April 2					6	April 1					Coldest day. Feb. 2d, —2°
Days on which thermometer was at 32° and under, at 0° and under, and the coldest day.	October 4					Coldest day. Dec. 24th, —4°	October 4					
	November 6						November 9					
Days on which thermometer was at 32° and under, at 0° and under, and the coldest day.	December 21					108	December 21					105

# Dr. HOLYOKE'S Table of Results.

91

1790

1791

Mth.	8 A.M.	Noon	Set.	10 P.M.	Mean of month.	Mth.	8 A.M.	Noon	Set.	10 P.M.	Mean of month.
Jan.	26. 5	32. 3	29. 4	26. 5	28. 67	Jan.	23. 8	31. 1	26. 3	23. 3	26. 1
Feb.	24. 1	30. 3	26. 5	22. 3	25. 77	Feb.	20. 2	33. 2	24. 9	20. 3	24. 6
Mar.	31. 1	36. 6	33. 6	29. 3	32. 5	Mar.	36. 2	42. 5	37. 6	34. 1	37. 6
Apr.	41. 7	49. 7	41. 6	38. 1	42. 72	Apr.	46. 7	54. 6	47. 6	42. 5	47. 85
May.	57. 7	61. 8	54. 5	49. 1	55. 77	May.	59. 2	67. 7	62. 2	53. 5	60. 47
June.	65. 7	73. 8	64. 3	60. 1	65. 95	June.	69. 7	77. 7	67. 7	62. 7	69. 45
July.	69. 8	78. 4	69. 6	64. 6	70. 6	July.	72. 1	81. 3	70. 5	66. 1	72. 47
Aug.	66. 7	73. 2	66. 2	62. 6	67. 17	Aug.	70. 3	78. 2	70. 4	65. 8	71. 17
Sep.	57. 9	67. 4	61. 5	56. 6	60. 85	Sep.	59. 7	67. 9	61. 1	57. 3	61. 5
Oct.	46. 8	56. 2	51. 2	45. 7	49. 97	Oct.	43. 4	52. 8	47. 5	42. 5	46. 55
Nov.	35. 5	42. 3	39. 1	34. 3	37. 77	Nov.	35. 8	44. 5	40. 7	35. 5	39. 12
Dec.	16. 5	23. 9	20. 3	17. 1	19. 45	Dec.	28. 6	34. 7	31. 2	28. 3	30. 7
Mean	44. 99	52. 16	46. 42	42. 11	46. 43	Mean	47. 14	55. 43	48. 97	44. 32	48. 965
The hottest and coldest day; the greatest variation in any 24 hours; and range of each month.	Hottest day.	Coldest day.	Greatest change in 24 hours.	Range of each month.		The hottest and coldest day; the greatest variation in any 24 hours; and range of each month.	Hottest day.	Coldest day.	Greatest change in 24 hours.	Range of each month.	
Jan.	3 <sup>d</sup> 51°	21 <sup>st</sup> 14°	7 28	31°		Jan.	10 <sup>th</sup> 43°	22 <sup>d</sup> 0°	22 <sup>d</sup> 34°	43°	
Feb.	15 46	10—3	9 25	49		Feb.	14 46	17 1	17 37	45	
Mar.	28 50	9 3	4 26	47		Mar.	17 58	1 15	3 19	43	
Apr.	4 69	7 24	4 28	35		Apr.	21 70	3 32	20 25	38	
May.	10 81	7 42	10 31	39		May.	29 90	5 37	13 40	53	
June.	17 94	2 51	17 39	43		June.	13 91	20 50	17 28	41	
July.	6 89	19 57	21 24	42		July.	13 96. 5	2 53	6 24	43	
Aug.	14 93	30 53	30 23	40		Aug.	29 88	20 56	1 23	32	
Sep.	10 83	23 44	10 23	39		Sep.	24 80	28 44	25 27	36	
Oct.	30 64	27 28	27 24	36		Oct.	2 80	31 30	3 26	50	
Nov.	15 58	26 17	30 14	41		Nov.	8 63	4 17	26 28	46	
Dec.	11 39	19—8	19 28	47		Dec.	27 49	24 10	3 23	39	
Days on which thermometer was at 80° and upwards in wards, and hottest d.	Thermometer at 80° and upwards in	Thermom. at 90° and upwards in	Thermometer at 80° and upwards in	Thermom. at 90° and upwards in		Days on which thermometer was at 32° and under, at 0° and under, and the coldest day.	Thermometer at 32° and under in	Thermom. at 0° and under in	Thermometer at 32° and under in	Thermom. at 0° and under in	
May	1 days	June 1 day	May	7 days		January	29 days	February 2	January	27	
June	5	August 1	June	15		February	22	December 3	February	26	
July	14	2	July	16		March	20	5	March	14	
August	7	Hottest day. June 17, 94°	August	15		April	2	Coldest day. Dec. 19th, —8°	April	1	
September	2		September	1		October	2		October	5	
	29		October	1		November	14		November	15	
				55		December	30		December	23	
							119			111	

1792

Mean of each time of observation, and of each month, at 4 observations per day.	Mth.	10 AM	Noon	1 PM	Mean				
Jan.	14.6	15.9	23.9	20.4	16.5	19.17			
Feb.	21.1	23.9	32.7	27.6	23.38	26.89			
Mar.	33.3	37.6	45.5	39.4	35.9	39.6			
Apr.	40.5	47.	54.4	48.3	43.6	48.3			
May	50.6	59.7	68.2	59.5	54.8	60.55			
June	58.	65.7	73.	63.1	59.5	65.3			
July	62.2	71.	78.3	70.	64.6	70.96			
Aug.	60.5	68.6	77.	69.6	64.2	69.85			
Sep.	49.7	56.9	66.2	59.3	54.	59.1			
Oct.	45.3	52.6	58.6	53.1	47.1	52.85			
Nov.	36.	39.2	47.4	43.4	38.9	42.22			
Dec.	20.1	22.3	31.9	28.3	23.3	26.45			
Mean	46.7	54.76	48.5	43.81	48.44				

The hottest and coldest day; the greatest variation in any 24 hours; and range of each month.	Mth.	10 AM	Noon	1 PM	Mean				
Jan.	3 <sup>d</sup> 44°	11 8	4 23	28 22	55°				
Feb.	4 44	6 28	23 23	40	44				
Mar.	28 62	15 34	27 35	50	45				
Apr.	2 74	8 48	2 25	34	45.5				
May	31 94	31 50	20 28	49	38				
June	20 93	27 37	9 30	44	44				
July	1 90	22 32	3 23	44	44				
Aug.	19 95.5	21 22	20 22	44	44				
Sep.	8 86	19 4	28 18	44	44				
Oct.	10 70								
Nov.	5 66								
Dec.	5 48								

Days on which thermometer was at 80° and upwards; at 90° and upwards; and hottest day.	Mth.	10 AM	Noon	1 PM	Mean				
Jan.	3 <sup>d</sup> 44°	11 8	4 23	28 22	55°				
Feb.	4 44	6 28	23 23	40	44				
Mar.	28 62	15 34	27 35	50	45				
Apr.	2 74	8 48	2 25	34	45.5				
May	31 94	31 50	20 28	49	38				
June	20 93	27 37	9 30	44	44				
July	1 90	22 32	3 23	44	44				
Aug.	19 95.5	21 22	20 22	44	44				
Sep.	8 86	19 4	28 18	44	44				
Oct.	10 70								
Nov.	5 66								
Dec.	5 48								

Days on which thermometer was at 32° and under; at 0° and under; and the coldest day.	Mth.	10 AM	Noon	1 PM	Mean				
Jan.	3 <sup>d</sup> 44°	11 8	4 23	28 22	55°				
Feb.	4 44	6 28	23 23	40	44				
Mar.	28 62	15 34	27 35	50	45				
Apr.	2 74	8 48	2 25	34	45.5				
May	31 94	31 50	20 28	49	38				
June	20 93	27 37	9 30	44	44				
July	1 90	22 32	3 23	44	44				
Aug.	19 95.5	21 22	20 22	44	44				
Sep.	8 86	19 4	28 18	44	44				
Oct.	10 70								
Nov.	5 66								
Dec.	5 48								

Mean of each time of observation, and of each month, at 4 observations per day.	Mth.	10 AM	Noon	1 PM	Mean				
Jan.	14.6	15.9	23.9	20.4	16.5	19.17			
Feb.	21.1	23.9	32.7	27.6	23.38	26.89			
Mar.	33.3	37.6	45.5	39.4	35.9	39.6			
Apr.	40.5	47.	54.4	48.3	43.6	48.3			
May	50.6	59.7	68.2	59.5	54.8	60.55			
June	58.	65.7	73.	63.1	59.5	65.3			
July	62.2	71.	78.3	70.	64.6	70.96			
Aug.	60.5	68.6	77.	69.6	64.2	69.85			
Sep.	49.7	56.9	66.2	59.3	54.	59.1			
Oct.	45.3	52.6	58.6	53.1	47.1	52.85			
Nov.	36.	39.2	47.4	43.4	38.9	42.22			
Dec.	20.1	22.3	31.9	28.3	23.3	26.45			
Mean	46.7	54.76	48.5	43.81	48.44				

The hottest and coldest day; the greatest variation in any 24 hours; and range of each month.	Mth.	10 AM	Noon	1 PM	Mean				
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Mar.	28 62	15 34	27 35	50	45				
Apr.	2 74	8 48	2 25	34	45.5				

VII. *A Letter on the Retreat of Swallows in Winter. From the Reverend Mr. PACKARD.*

*Marlborough, January 13th, 1791.*

S I R,

**I**N a review published in England, of the first volume of the Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, I noticed particularly the observations it contained, upon your letter to the late Governour Bowdoin, respecting the torpid state of house-swallows in winter. The reviewers, you recollect, conclude with wishing for the most circumstantial confirmation of the fact, if it be a fact, that those birds exist in mud during the cold season. Knowing your curiosity, and having accidentally received some hints tending to the subject, I pursued them to the following effect.

Lieutenant Nathaniel Orcutt, now living in Bridgewater, a gentleman of indubitable veracity, with whom I am personally acquainted, in answer to a letter, wrote me, that Mr. Ignatius Turner, formerly of Scituate, now deceased, a man of truth and probity, had repeatedly told him, that in Scituate, a mill-pond being drawn off suddenly by a breach in the dam, he saw the swine of that neighbourhood rooting up house swallows from the mud, from which the water was drained. Being in the winter season, it was a matter of speculation to others as well as to himself. He saw them eating the swallows, he said, and saw the wings of some lying on the mud, after the swine had done rooting. He

wrote

wrote me further—that Captain Polycarpus Edson of Bridgewater, merchant, gave him the following account, the truth of which Mr. Orcutt does not scruple, viz. That he, Captain Edson, being at a place called Egg Harbour, in the month of February, about seventeen years ago, observed a large cedar blown down, near his work, which raised a root proportioned to its trunk. The next day, being the remarkably cold Sabbath, which many among us have sufficient reason to remember, in company with another man, now living in a neighbouring state, he went to this tree, and found a large number of house swallows sticking in the mud of the root, and in that from which the root was torn. The weather was so extremely severe, that such as were naked, wholly uncovered, were not only torpid, but frozen. Prompted by curiosity, they dug into the mud, which the root had left; and found, as he expressed it, swallows as thick as one could lie by the side of another. Taking one that was not frozen, they carried it to their temporary cottage, and laid it by a fire. The little bird, as if February and May had exchanged places, soon perceived the difference of air, began to move; balance her wings; and to resume her natural activity: but the experiment, being attended with some difficulty, was given up with this observation, “with a little attention, she would undoubtedly fly in an hour or two.”

Since the receipt of Mr. Orcutt's letter, I have seen Captain Edson. He related these facts to me nearly in the same manner; and, in some instances, used the same terms and phrases contained in the letter. He added, that by what they saw, there must have been bushels of swallows which

which that tree covered in its natural state. The tree stood in poachy land, covered with moss, a mere morass, without any sward:—many holes and chasms appearing near where the tree stood, he supposes, they descended in those apertures, which were probably filled, or nearly filled with water at the time of their entrance.

Captain Edson told me, he was ready to make oath to this narrative; and that he scrupled not a deposition to the same purpose, might be obtained of——(I cannot recollect his name) the man, who was in company with him at Egg-Harbour.

I have said, I could place entire confidence in Lieutenant Orcutt as a man of truth; and now say, I have not the smallest reason to doubt of Captain Edson's veracity.

Whether you will think this letter entitled to a silent acknowledgment, I cannot say; but you know my cheerfulness in complying with any request, with which you are pleased to honour me, and that

I am,

Honoured Sir,

Very affectionately,

Yours,

ASA PACKARD.

The Hon. SAMUEL DEXTER, Esq. F. A. A.

VIII.

VIII. *A Letter on the Retreat of Swallows, and the Torpid State of certain Animals, in Winter. From SEVERYN J. BRUYN, Esq.*

*Bruynfwyke, Ulster County, April 3d, 1790.*

S I R,

I AM sensible, it has long been an inquiry, where, or into what places, swallows retreat during the winter; and that there have been various conjectures on this subject. The account, which Mr. Hathorn, one of the members of Congress, has given you of their being found in hollow trees in the winter season, is a fact to which I can fully testify. In the year 1787, about the 20th of March, I was passing with some hunters through the country near Neverfink creek, in the great Hardenbergh Patent; where I observed a large hollow chefnut tree to have been broken off, near the ground, by the force of the wind. It burst open by falling, so as to expose the hollow a considerable way along the trunk. I judged the tree to be about ten feet in circumference; and the hollow to extend thirty or forty feet from the stump; which was so large, that the sound wood did not appear to be more than four inches thick. In the hollow of this tree were an immense number of swallows, amounting, I believe, to many thousands. They were all dead; many were perfectly entire, and in their natural form; but some of them were so far decayed, as that, on moving or taking them up, their wings separated from their bodies. The reason of their being all dead, and not in a torpid state,

state, I imputed to their being exposed to the severity of the weather, during the winter, by the tree's bursting open when it fell. They were of the species which we call chimney swallows. Their colour is much darker than that of the barn swallow. The large feathers in the tail terminate in strong sharp points, by which they support themselves along the inside of chimneys, whilst they are building their nests. They fold their tail feathers in a direction perpendicular to their bodies, which is contrary to that of the barn swallows. Large numbers of these swallows annually build in the chimneys of my house ; and frequently descend down into the rooms, by which means they have been very familiar to me. I can therefore, positively declare, that those I found in the hollow chestnut, were of the same species. This chestnut was about forty miles west of that part of Hudson's river, which is about ninety miles distance from New-York on a north line ; or was probably between the latitudes of  $41^{\circ} 30'$  and  $42^{\circ}$  north.

The island in the Neverfink Creek, where Mr. Baker found a large number of swallows, in the beginning of March, 1789, in a hollow beech tree, which were mentioned in a late New-York paper, lies about ten miles from the place, where I found the swallows in the chestnut. I am well acquainted with Mr. Baker ; and conceive him to be a man of probity ; but it is possible he might be mistaken in the species of swallows.

There are some curious facts in the natural history of the bear, which perhaps, you have not met with. About the

N

beginning

beginning of January, they retire to holes, or caverns, in ledges of rocks ; and sometimes into hollow trees, where they remain in a state of torpitude, or rather profound sleep, until about the middle of the month of March ; when they awake, and go abroad ; at which time, the female brings out her cubs with her. It has been a matter of great uncertainty with hunters, in what way those cubs are generated : for the female bears have been killed in these holes, at all periods of their retirement ; and frequently, just about the time of their coming out ; and yet no cubs have been found in them ; nor has there been found, after the most critical search, any appearance of an embryo, or foetus. I have often examined them ; and it has been done by many hunters, particularly by the Indians (who consider this as a very mysterious matter) just at the time of their going abroad ; the viscera, where they might be expected to be found ; and the whole of the intestines, were collapsed, and as clean as if they had been washed with water, except a hard lump of feces just within the orifice of the anus. If the bears are awaked before the proper time of their emigration, they will sleep no more ; but rove about the remainder of the winter. I have known a tamed bear, of about four years old, to be waked up the first of February ; after which it would not return to its torpid state ; but required constant feeding the remainder of the winter. It is much the same with the racoon, in regard to its sleeping, and waking, during the winter.

It

It will probably, be in my power to procure you a specimen of the swallows, which I will forward to any place you may direct in New-York.

I am, Sir,

Your very humble servant,

SEVERYN I. BRUYN.

Rev. Dr. CUTLER.

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*The following Account, published in a New-York Paper, is alluded to in this Letter.*

POUGHKEEPSIE, Feb. 23, 1790.

“IN Ulster county, in the state of New-York, on an island in the Neverfink Creek, nearly in the latitude of  $41^{\circ} 30' N.$  a Mr. Baker, in the beginning of the month of March last, having cut down a large hollow beech tree, to his surprise, found the cavity in the tree, nearly filled with the common barn swallows of this country, in quantity (by his estimation) nearly two barrels. They were in a torpid state ; but carrying some of those which were not injured by the fall of the tree, near a fire, they were presently reanimated by the warmth, and took the wing with the usual agility. This may be depended on as a fact.”

IX.

IX. *A Practical Essay on Raising Apple Trees, and Making Cider, by Mr. A. CROCKER, of Somerset, England.*

To the PRESIDENT and MEMBERS of the AMERICAN ACADEMY.

GENTLEMEN,

THE due cultivation of the arts and sciences tends much to the advantage and glory of every state. Institutions like that of the *American Academy* cannot fail of producing happy effects on the surrounding world.

Notwithstanding I hold all due respect for *mathematical* and *philosophical disquisitions* (two important objects of your institution) yet I conceive that the world, in general, derive a principal advantage from the *due application* of the sciences to the common concerns of life.

*Horticulture*, even when considered as a philosophical science only, is truly a pleasing study; but when applied to practice, it becomes an art *profitable as well as pleasurable*. It is not my intention, in the following essay, to treat in a scientific way, the subject of horticulture at large; but only to explain in a plain yet comprehensive way, one branch thereof; namely, the propagation of apple trees: adding thereto, as a subject naturally appendant, the most successful mode of converting the fruit thereof into a grateful, vinous, and salubrious liquor.

If the result of twenty years' experience and observation on the subjects can merit your attention, I presume that the following pages have some small claim to that exalted privilege.

vilege. Should, however, my ideas thereof be too sanguine, I beg you will do me the justice to believe that I am, in the utmost purity of intention, and with best wishes for the prosperity of your Academy,

Gentlemen,

your most faithful,

and very humble servant,

A. CROCKER.

*Frome School, Somerset, in England, July 23d, 1789.*

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A PRACTICAL ESSAY on RAISING APPLE TREES, and  
MAKING CIDER.

THE value and virtues of cider are too well known, to need any encomium from the pen of a modern writer: it will therefore, be more suitable to the intention of an essay on the subject, to point out the best means of procuring this excellent liquor in its purest state.

To do which, we must not only shew the proper management of the cider itself; but we must consider the best kinds of fruit for making it; the necessary management of the trees from which the fruit is produced; and also, the soil best adapted to the raising of those trees. The several subjects of this anti-climax will, in this essay, be considered in their natural order.

The soil which, by experience, the writer hereof has found to be best adapted to the raising of apple trees, in the *seminary*, is a light, rich loam, that has a less proportion of clay

to

to sand, than that which by writers on agriculture is generally considered a *due proportion for good mould*. It must not be understood, that the writer hereof means to recommend a soil composed merely of clay and sand, without the auxiliary aid of putrid mucilages, or other subjects of manure; but that he would recommend such an enriched soil, as is not of too strong a tenacity to favour the germination of the kernels sown therein. On soil it may only be further necessary to remark, that for the *stocks*, when transplanted from the *seminary* to the *nursery*, a greater degree of tenacity is required, than what is before mentioned: so that if the due proportion of clay to sand, in *common mould*, be as *one to four*; in the *seminary* for *apple kernels*, it may be as *one to five*; and for the *stocks* in the *nursery*, it may be somewhat more than as *one to four*.

Having prepared a bed of such soil in the *seminary*, as is mentioned above, let there be taken, in the latter end of October, or early part of November, from the strainings or pumice,\* of a cider or verjuice cheese† a quantity of kernels, which sow thereon, covering them with sifted mould about an inch over; where they will germinate, and spring up about April following.

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\* *Pumice*. A provincial term, signifying pounded, or ground apples: perhaps a corruption from the French *pomme maché*, chewed apples.

† A nurseryman, who raises apple trees for sale, may find his advantage in raising his *stocks* from *apple kernels*; but though a handsome tree may be thence raised in less time, it cannot be doubted that a tree raised from the kernel of a *crab*, or other *wilding*, will stand much longer in the orchard.

In this seminary the young stocks are to remain two years from the time of sowing; during which time no attention to them is necessary, but that of preserving them from external injuries, and pulling up such noxious weeds as may arise among them. At the end of this time, they must be taken up, thrown into two parcels (of great and small) and trimmed root and branch. The lateral branches must be shortened to about six inches, and the leading branch taken off at two feet from the upper roots. The spill or tap-root must also be taken off below the fibres, and the other roots pruned or plashed, in such manner that the whole ramifications of fibres appendant thereto may be spread in a circular, or at least in the most commodious, manner for drawing nourishment from the greatest space of ground possible after transplantation.† Such of those stocks as are more than an inch in circumference, must be transplanted in a quincunx order, two feet and half apart each way. The smaller ones may be transplanted in rows of a foot distance, and three or four inches apart in the rows: whence they may be again transplanted, at the proper distance for grafting, a year or two afterwards.

The method to be recommended for transplanting, is this. Let trenches be made in the nurserybed (which is supposed to have been cleansed and well dug aforehand) about a foot broad,

† Here it may be noted, that such crabbls as have before shewn a broad, well formed leaf, and run tall and straight, may be trained as *wilding trees*; which possibly may produce good cider fruit without grafting: whereby the nurseryman will save two years in bringing a tree to perfection. But, should the tree deceive him, when it shews its fruit, he may graft it in the head; and but little time will be lost by such means.

broad, and six inches deep. In these trenches the stocks are to be planted, at the distances before mentioned, in the manner following. The nurseryman must take a stock in his left hand, and therewith keep it firmly down to the bottom of the trench; and with his right, display the large roots in the best manner, and fasten them firmly, by putting in and pressing hard down some of the side earth, which was thrown out of the trench. Thus must he fill up the trench by degrees, frequently pulling out and spreading abroad with his fingers the fibrous ramifications, and pressing the earth close about the roots and stem. The greatest part of this labour should be done kneeling on a wad of straw, and going backwards as he plants.

This operation must be performed the latter end of October, or beginning of November, as the season may best serve, after a fall of rain. Here the stocks will remain until the second spring following, without requiring any attention more than that of guarding them from external injuries, or pruning off such lateral branches, as may happen to break out within six inches from the surface of the earth. It is advisable to permit the natural grasses, which may arise among the stocks, to form an imperfect sward, that the soil may acquire a greater strength for holding the stocks from being shaken by winds; so that the fibres may the more securely perform an uninterrupted labour of extracting nutriment from the earth.

In the second April after this transplantation, the stocks (being about three inches in circumference) will become  
fit

fit for grafting ; which is a work that requires the utmost care and skill of the nurferyman.

Various are the methods of this art which have been ufed and recommended by different perfons : but the mode of grafting which the writer of this effay has found beft to fucceed, and which is certainly well adapted to ftocks of this fize, is that which is termed *whip* or *splice grafting* ; and is thus performed. Some fourteen or twenty days before the ftocks are to be grafted, take from fome healthy, fruitful trees, of fuch kinds of apples as are intended to be propagated, a fufficient number of fhoots of the laft year\* ; tie them in feparate bundles ; label them ; and put the larger ends thereof about three inches deep in the earth, in fome expofed part of a garden, there to remain till they are wanted for ufe.† The

\* If it were of ufe to the refpectable fociety I am writing to, I might give a lift of the names of cider-fruit moft in efteem amongft us : fuch as the Styre, Redfreak, Panfon apple, Bennet apple, Captain Nurfe's kernel, Hagley's crab, Elton's yellow, and Old Quining, of Herefordfhire : the Cockagee, Golden pippin, Old Redfreak, Royal Jerfey, Cadbury apple, Caftle pippin, Lemon pippin, and Salifbury apple, of Somerfetfhire : the Staverton Redfreak, Lidbrook ditto, Zachary's apple, Jofey, Bittersweet, Orchardton pippin, and Baccamore of Devonfhire : to which may be added the Marfy, Marbrè, Double Pigeon rouge, Panachè, Ecarlotte de le Precocce, Pomme de Neige, Pomme de Chatelet, Pommes des Normandy, and various others lately imported hither from the European continent ; but as names are accidentally or capricioufly applied, and the charaeterifticks of apples thereby but imperfectly denoted, it may be better to remark, generally, that fuch apples (efpecially four ones) as are of a yellow colour, and have red freaks on the fun fide, whatever their names may be, are indubitably the beft cider fruits.

† The reafon for taking the grafts from the tree, and thus expofing them before they are grafted to the flock, is, that the juices in their tubes may evaporate through the bark, or be extravafated into the ground. Their tubes being in fome meafure thus emptied, will the more freely admit the afcent of fap from the flock after their union.

The nurseryman having mixed and well tempered with water a sufficient quantity of strong clay, the new feces of a horse which feeds on hay, and some fresh cow-dung, he must betake himself to his nursery; where, standing on the north side of a stock, he must place his left foot firmly on the earth, close thereto, and with a strong pruning knife take off the stock about five or six inches above the ground in a sloping manner; and on the south side, where the bark is clean, and free from knots, with a very keen pen-knife, he must take off a thin slice of bark and wood, of two inches or more in length. He must then take his graft, and shorten it to three or four buds, and from the part opposite the lower bud but one, slope it down so as to match the thin slice taken from the stock; and so place his graft and stock together, that the inner bark of each may coalesce: inserting the bottom of the graft into a small slash-incision made at the bottom of the slope of the stock: In this order he must bind his graft and stock firmly together with a list of bass-matting wetted; and then, by himself or assistant, surround both with a ball of his tempered clay: taking care so to close it about the stock and graft, as totally to exclude the external air.\* To prevent the clay being chapped by cold winds or sun, it may be proper to wrap a thin layer of tow round the ball of clay; smoothing the whole with the hand, dipped in water. Thus he will proceed until all his stocks are grafted.†

In

\* This operation of grafting should be performed, if possible, when the weather is moderate: not during the time of very cold winds or open sun shine.

† It is scarcely necessary to remark, that it may be prudent to graft each sort by itself. The labelling the grafts (before mentioned) was intended as an intimation of the propriety of so doing.

In this state the whole must remain until the latter end of June following ;\* at which time it will be necessary to cut through the ball of clay, displace it, and carefully take off the bass bandage ; when, to his satisfaction (if the former operation was well performed) the nurseryman will perceive a perfect union of the graft and stock. If any extraneous shoots, around the stocks under the clay, should appear, they must be cut off with a keen knife, or slipped down with the fingers ; and the whole clayed as before, but without any bass bandage.

The graft must now be left to make its advances towards a tree ; which it will speedily do, with the few following helps. Early in the ensuing spring, the second clay must be taken off, and the stock cut slopingly away on the part opposite the graft. Should the graft not advance perpendicularly, it may be assisted by tying it to a small stake, fastened in the ground, near the stock. The lateral spurs or branches of the graft should not yet be taken off ; as it is a known truth that trees acquire as much nourishment by the leaves, when in full verdure, as by the roots. But when the graft has arisen to the perpendicular height of somewhat more than six feet, let it be stopped (in the month of February) by cutting it off just above a bud of that height. The upper six buds will, in the course of the succeeding summer, form the ground-work of an apple tree head. This young head must, in the next spring, be shortened to four or five buds on each branch ; always observing to leave the outer bud of each for the uppermost ; thereby giving opportunity

\* Frequently slipping off such buds as break out from the stocks below the clay.

portunity to the head to spread to a larger size. This operation of shortening the young shoots must be repeated in the ensuing spring, and perhaps in a third spring also; taking care in the preceding winters, to displace all such small branches, as cross or intercept the progress of others.

The second October following this period, those trees will become fit to plant out in an orchard; and the business of the nurseryman will nearly be ended.\* Hence it appears, that in nine or ten years, an apple tree might be raised from the kernel to its plantation into the orchard; and of such kind of fruit as may be required or wished.†

It would amount to a tautology to repeat the necessary soil for an orchard, or the proper method of planting such trees, so much having been said on soil and transplantation, in the foregoing part of this essay: It remains therefore, to

\* The site of an orchard has been so happily expressed by the English Pomonian Bard, that I shall take the liberty of speaking thereof in his own language.

“Whoe’er expects his lab’ring trees should bend  
With fruitage, and a kindly harvest yield,  
Be this his first concern; to find a tract  
Impervious to the winds, begirt with hills  
That intercept the *Hyperborean* blasts  
Tempestuous, and cold *Eurus*’ nipping force,  
Noxious to feeble buds: But to the west  
Let him free entrance grant.”

† Were it not foreign to the intention of this essay, much might be said of the profits arising from a nursery properly managed; supposing the trees to be raised for sale. The writer will only remark that an acre of land will contain 6575 stocks, when planted at proper distances for grafting. Abate the 75 for accidents, there will remain 6500 trees; which, at the very low average price of *one shilling and six pence* a tree, will amount to £487 10s. A very handsome profit for an acre of land thus employed a few years only!

to remark only, that after the trees have been planted in the orchard, and properly staked to prevent their being moved by winds, &c. and have stood two winters and one summer, the heads must again be shortened, in the manner before directed.\*

Thus (without further trouble, except a little pruning of such branches as intersect others) will new heads be formed, which will last for ages: and which will quickly repay all labour and cost, by successive crops of a golden fruit, highly estimable for its pleasing salubrious juice.

THE business of the cider-maker comes next under consideration: and therein much labour and attention must be employed, or the nurseryman has been working in vain.

About the beginning of October, he will find his apples, in general, sufficiently ripe for gathering: this he will know by slightly shaking a loaded bough of an appletree; for if the apples fall freely, it is an indication of their being sufficiently matured for his purpose.

He must then progressively shake the boughs of his trees (but not pole any, leaving the unripe apples for further maturation) and gather into heaps this golden harvest of *Pomona*;

\* Trees thus managed, will be subject to very few disorders. Should they however, contract much moss, it may easily be removed with a pail-brush, or a piece of hair cloth often dipped in water. This may best be performed after some showers of rain. If in four or five years after the trees are planted out, any of them should appear (by the cleaving of the bark) to be hide bound, an incision should be made in the bark, with the point of a sharp knife, from the head to the ground. Should they be unthrifty, from metallic salts, pyrites, or other peculiarity of the soil wherein they are planted, lay the roots partly open, in the month of November, and when the frost has well operated on the opened soil, cover the roots with some rich compost, and close the whole again.

na; keeping each kind of fruit by itfelf. Thefe heaps of apples (which fhould not be more than a foot deep) muft remain in the orchard, or fome other open place, for a fortnight or more; in which time they will, in general, acquire a fufficient degree of melioration to be made into cider. Should fevere frofts fet in, thefe heaps of apples muft be covered with ftraw.

His mill, prefs, and veffels being previously cleaned,\* he muft now grind his apples to a pretty fine pumice; and, without much delay, proceed to the expreffing of the juice; putting the pumice for that purpofe, into very clean horfe-hair cloths, or making a cheefe thereof with bandages of fweet, clean wheat reed; taking care not to mix the pumice of various kinds of apples in one cider cheefe, efpecially of fweet and four fruits.

The juice thus expreffed, muft be ftrained through a fine hair fieve, into an open veffel, and thence conveyed to the casks, which fhould previously be placed in an open cellar: the bungs of which muft be left unftopped, that the grofs feces of the firft fermentation may be difcharged thereat.

Very particular attention muft now be paid to the cider, to catch (as it were) the very moment of the firft fining thereof,† and immediately to rack it off into a clean, open veffel; where it muft remain eighteen or twenty hours: after which, it muft be turned into another cask, properly cleaned,

\* In none of which muft any *lead* be ufed, left a poifon be thereby adminiftered to thofe who drink the cider.

† This is beft obferved by drawing out a glafs-full frequently, and holding it to the light: or it may pretty accurately be known by the difcharged feces becoming brown, and beginning to crack.

cleaned, and if need be, matched.\* This first fining of the cider, made at this season of the year, from sour fruit, will happen within thirty or perhaps twenty hours after making; that of sweet fruit, in not less than forty or fifty hours. Hence appears the necessity of keeping the different kinds of apples separate: for should a commixture of fruit be admitted, the juice of the sweet apple will not get fine until the second fermentation of that of the sour is begun; and a perpetual, unnatural fermentation will ensue, and continue perhaps for months; robbing the cider of its saccharine parts, and converting the whole into an acid liquor, unpleasant to the palate, and far less wholesome than it would have been, if duly managed.†

In

\* Matching a cask is intended either to suppress an improper fermentation in the cider; to give some particular flavour thereto; or to increase the spirit thereof; and is thus performed. Take a strip of canvas cloth, about eighteen inches long and two broad: one half of which must be dipped in brimstone (melted in an earthen pan) whereon some pounded oris root, grains of paradise, coriander seeds, winters bark, ginger, cloves, cinnamon, or other pungent aromatics, have been strewed. When this match is dry, it must be lighted, and put into a cask (pendent from the bung) in which a few gallons of cider have been beforehand tunned; where it must remain until it be burnt out. The cask must remain close stopped for an hour or more, and then rolled to and fro, to incorporate the fumes of the match with the cider: after which it must be nearly filled with the remaining cider. If the matching be intended merely to suppress an improper fermentation, the brimstone alone will be sufficient; but if an additional flavour and spirit be required, take such of the other ingredients as may be liked best. For increasing the spirit, it seems unnecessary to be over curious in the choice of the ingredients; for "All the pungent aromatics have a surprising property of increasing the quantity of spirit."

*Shaw's Chemical Essays.*

† Chemists inform us, and experience confirms the position, that vegetable juices undergo various fermentations, very different in their effects. The first is called *vinous*, and so changes the property of the *must*, that, by distillation, an inflammable spirit may be extracted; which before, could not be done: the second is called *acetous*, converting,

In a very short time after the cider is become fine, if it be not racked as before directed, the acid fermentation begins. This may be perceived by a hissing noise, very distinctly heard, on applying the ear to the bung of the cask; and its effects can only be remedied (and that but in part) by drawing it off, as soon as perceived, into an open vessel, and suffering it there to remain for thirty or forty hours before it be again tunned into a fresh cask, and by mixing therewith some good French brandy, about the quantity of a quart to a hoghead of cider: or by matching the cask in manner spoken of in a preceding note.

But permit it to be supposed that the cider-maker has been cautious enough to catch the first fining above mentioned, and to have managed it according to the preceding directions, he will then have nothing more to do therewith until the February or March following; when it will be proper, in a mild season of fair weather, to give it another racking; and, if need be, to commix that which was made from sour fruit (which may be too pale) with that which was made from sweet fruit (which is generally dark coloured) thereby giving it as well a proper flavour, as that high amber colour, which, in the glass, is pleasing to the eye.\* The vessels

verting the liquor into vinegar: all the succeeding fermentations are of the putrefactive kind, forming mucilage, volatile alkali, &c. Hence appears a philosophick reason for attending particularly to the cider in its early stages; that the acetous and future fermentations may be prevented, and the first only permitted. See Fordyce's Elements of Vegetation, Elliott's Elements of Chemistry, &c. &c.

\* Should the colour be still too pale, some lump sugar, melted in an iron stew pan, and commixed with some cider whilst in a fluid state, will heighten it to any degree of colour required.

vessels should at this time of racking be placed in a close cellar. At the return of the season, when apple trees are again in bloom, the cider will be found in a slight fermentation: until this operation of nature is past, the vessels must remain unstopped; but as soon as this is perfected, the cork may be placed on the bung, and daily pressed more and more tight. Should the cider be intended for bottling, it will be best to do it in the beginning of April; leaving the bottles uncorked, for eighteen or twenty hours after their being filled.

Thus, by the month of June or July, the cider-maker will be possessed of a sparkling, vinous, animating liquor; fit for the best citizens of "the free and independent states of America" to regale themselves with.

X. *Meteorological Observations made at Montreal, Canada, North America.*

*State of FAHRENHEIT'S Thermometer insulated, and exposed to the North.*

O C T O B E R. 1791.				
Ord.	Remarks before Noon.	<i>h. m.</i>	<i>h. m.</i>	Remarks after Noon.
26		7.30	37.00	
			0	
27		7.	26.30	11.30 30.0
			0	0
28		7.	29.30	12. 31.0
			0	0
29		7.30	38.00	12. 31.
			0	0
30	Snow.	7.	27.00	12. 31. fleet and rain.
			0	0
31	Rain.	7.30	32.39	11. 34. dry.
			0	0

N O V E M B E R. 1791.

Nov.	Remarks before Noon.	<i>h. m.</i>	<i>h. m.</i>	Remarks after Noon.
1		7.00	$\frac{27.00}{0}$	11.00 $\frac{26.00}{0}$
2	light snow.	7.30	$\frac{23.30}{0}$	11.30 $\frac{22.30}{0}$
3	fair.	7.00	$\frac{17.00}{0}$	11.30 $\frac{21.00}{0}$ cloudy, frost all day.
4	light snow and sleet.	7.00	$\frac{19.00}{0}$	11.30 $\frac{21.00}{0}$ cloudy, moon light at intervals.
5	overcast, threatening snow.	7.00	$\frac{28.00}{0}$	12.00 $\frac{34.30}{0}$ wild squalls of high wind, flying clouds.
6	fair: some light snow.	7.15	$\frac{27.00}{0}$	12.00 $\frac{37.00}{0}$ cloudy, and intervals of moon light.
7	grey.	7.00	$\frac{32.00}{0}$	11.45 $\frac{33.00}{0}$ cloudy.
8	mild, thick, foreboding rain.	7.00	$\frac{38.00}{0}$	11.00 $\frac{33.00}{0}$ soft, and disposed to melt.
9	grey and foggy.	7.15	$\frac{33.00}{0}$	11.15 $\frac{35.00}{0}$ cloudy moon.
10	grey, inclined to rain.	7.00	$\frac{34.00}{0}$	12.00 $\frac{45.00}{0}$ mild rain.
11	mild rain; cleared up.	7.00	$\frac{39.00}{0}$	11.30 $\frac{28.00}{0}$ clear N. W. wind.
12	clear N. W.	7.00	$\frac{49.30}{0}$	12.00 $\frac{16.30}{0}$ clear, calm.
13	do. do.	7.15	$\frac{15.30}{0}$	11.15 $\frac{26.00}{0}$ snowing.
14	grey, barely done snowing: sn.	7.15	$\frac{25.30}{0}$	11.00 $\frac{31.00}{0}$ sleet and rain, hard rain.
15	threatening rain: rain.	7.00	$\frac{34.00}{0}$	11.15 $\frac{23.00}{0}$ N. W. wind very cold to the feeling.
16	grey, light snow.	7.15	$\frac{22.30}{0}$	11.15 $\frac{22.30}{0}$ grey, windy, threatening snow.
17	light snow, promising more.	7.15	$\frac{21.00}{0}$	11.00 $\frac{19.00}{0}$ fair star light.
18	threatening a fall of snow.	7.15	$\frac{21.00}{0}$	12.00 $\frac{21.00}{0}$ threatening snow.
19	do. do.	7.15	$\frac{19.30}{0}$	12.00 $\frac{22.00}{0}$ clear with northern light: calm.
20	calm and clear.	7.15	$\frac{8.00}{0}$	11.15 $\frac{15.00}{0}$ star light.
21	thick and cloudy.	7.20	$\frac{31.00}{0}$	11.15 $\frac{40.00}{0}$ rain and S. wind.
22	clearing.	7.20	$\frac{32.00}{0}$	11.45 $\frac{30.00}{0}$ calm, star light.
23	fair, sunshine.	7.30	$\frac{29.30}{0}$	12.00 $\frac{35.30}{0}$ hazy.

*Meteorological Observations made at Montreal.*

115

Nov.	Remarks before Noon.	<i>h. m.</i>	<i>h. m.</i>	Remarks after Noon.
24	grey, snow.	7. 25	$\frac{30.30}{0}$	11. 35 $\frac{31.30}{0}$ thick and raw.
25	rain and southerly wind.	7. 10	$\frac{43.00}{0}$	11. 40 $\frac{22.30}{0}$ high N.W. wind, and star light.
26	clear, moderate N. W. wind.	7. 30	$\frac{9.00}{0}$	11. 45 $\frac{15.30}{0}$ calm, star light.
27	grey, calm, S. wind, changeable.	7. 15	$\frac{24.00}{0}$	11. 15 $\frac{31.00}{0}$ overcast, threatening snow.
28	snow all day.	7. 15	$\frac{33.00}{0}$	11. 30 $\frac{31.30}{0}$ light snow.
29	overcast, clear, sunshine.	7. 10	$\frac{30.00}{0}$	11. 40 $\frac{22.00}{0}$ calm, star light.
30	hazy, foggy horizon.	7. 10	$\frac{20.00}{0}$	11. 30 $\frac{26.00}{0}$ foggy, hazy, frost.

D E C E M B E R. 1791.

Dec.	Remarks before Noon.	<i>h. m.</i>	<i>h. m.</i>	Remarks after Noon.
1	grey, fair, cloudy.	7. 15	$\frac{24.00}{0}$	11. 50 $\frac{40.30}{0}$ foggy, inclined to rain.
2	rain, mist, snow generally gone	7. 30	$\frac{39.30}{0}$	11. 30 $\frac{30.00}{0}$ clearing W. wind.
3	fair, a few flying cl. from W.	7. 30	$\frac{24.00}{0}$	12. 00 $\frac{20.00}{0}$ fair, star light.
4	cloudy, threatens snow, snow.	7. 30	$\frac{19.00}{0}$	11. 45 $\frac{30.30}{0}$ clear moon, a few flying clouds.
5	fair.	7. 35	$\frac{26.30}{0}$	12. 00 $\frac{24.00}{0}$ snow 2 in. over the gen. surface.
6	clear, cloudy gather <sup>d</sup> . overcast.	7. 30	$\frac{11.00}{0}$	11. 45 $\frac{14.00}{0}$ threatens snow, easterly airs.
7	snow.	7. 30	$\frac{14.30}{0}$	12. 45 $\frac{17.30}{0}$ cloudy.
8	snow, 8 inches on gen. surface.	7. 30	$\frac{13.00}{0}$	11. 45 $\frac{13.30}{0}$ snow.
9	thick, overcast.	7. 35	$\frac{8.00}{0}$	12. 00 $\frac{8.30}{0}$ W. wind, overcast; severe all day.
10	do. do.	7. 10	$\frac{8.20}{0}$	12. 00 $\frac{14.40}{0}$ grey, moon light, calm.
11	do. do.	7. 15	$\frac{16.00}{0}$	11. 40 $\frac{14.00}{0}$ fine moon light, cloudless sky.
12	hoar frost, and fog.	7. 20	$\frac{16.00}{0}$	12. 00 $\frac{29.00}{0}$ fleet, sn. incl. to rain E. wind.
13	thick drifting snow, and fleet.	7. 30	$\frac{28.00}{0}$	11. 40 $\frac{31.00}{0}$ snow all day, and N. E. wind.

D E C E M B E R. 1791.

Dec.	Remarks before Noon.	<i>h. m.</i>	<i>h. m.</i>	Remarks after Noon.
14	high W. wind and pouderie with flights of snow.	7. 35	$\frac{16.00}{0}$	12. 00 $\frac{14.00}{0}$ clearing W. wind, star & m. light.
15	calm, clouds breaking fine.	7. 30	$\frac{13.40}{0}$	12. 00 $\frac{22.00}{0}$ calm and hoar frost.
16	overcast, clearing, sn. inc. to rain	7. 40	$\frac{26.00}{0}$	11. 40 $\frac{30.00}{0}$ boisterous S. wind and clear.
17	calm, cloudy, sunshine.	7. 30	$\frac{13.00}{0}$	12. 00 $\frac{15.00}{0}$ calm, cloudy, some stars.
18	fine sn. grey & overcast. hoar frost	7. 30	$\frac{12.30}{0}$	12. 00 $\frac{22.00}{0}$ calm.
19	overcast, clearing.	7. 20	$\frac{18.00}{0}$	12. 40 $\frac{13.00}{0}$ overcast.
20	do.	7. 30	$\frac{9. 30}{0}$	12. 00 $\frac{7. 30}{0}$ thick, cloudy.
21	do.	7. 45	$\frac{11.00}{0}$	12. 00 $\frac{13.40}{0}$ drifting easterly snow.
22	N. E. wind, drifting fine snow.	7. 40	$\frac{10.00}{0}$	11. 50 $\frac{12.00}{0}$ high N. E. wind.
23	thick, light snow.	7. 40	$\frac{6. 00}{0}$	11. 30 $\frac{12.00}{0}$ light snow, thick.
24	fine, N. W. wind.	7. 30	$\frac{3. 00}{0}$	6. 00 $\frac{5. 30}{0}$ fair, inclin'd to changeable.
25	thick snow.	7. 35	$\frac{12.30}{0}$	11. 55 $\frac{15.00}{0}$ snow all day, thick and overcast.
26	overcast and very mild.	7. 30	$\frac{23.30}{0}$	11. 50 $\frac{34.00}{0}$ high S. wind, star light.
27	high S. wind, fair & very mild	7. 40	$\frac{32.00}{0}$	2. 00 $\frac{38.00}{0}$ very fine mild star light.
28	mild S. airs, thick, very mild.	7. 30	$\frac{33.00}{0}$	3. 30 $\frac{38.00}{0}$ gust of S. wind and rain for 10 minutes, high W. wind, thick and cloudy.
29	fine clear N. W. w. very keen.	7. 40	$\frac{16.00}{0}$	no observation.
30	cloudy, inclin'd to clear.	1. 45 $\frac{18.00}{0}$ 7. 45 $\frac{20.00}{0}$	11. 30 $\frac{15.00}{0}$	calm, star light.
31	hoar fog.	7. 20 $\frac{8. 00}{0}$	11. 59 $\frac{14.00}{0}$	star light and calm.

*Meteorological Observations made at Montreal.*

117

J A N U A R Y. 1792.

Jan.	Remarks before Noon.	<i>h. m.</i>	<i>h. m.</i>	Remarks after Noon.
1	grey, cloudy, snow all day,	7.45	$\frac{12.00}{0}$	12.00 $\frac{21.00}{0}$ snow, N.E. wind, calm, thick.
2	calm and thick,	7.40	$\frac{21.30}{0}$	12.00 $\frac{35.00}{0}$ fleety rain, rain from 6 to 10, thick and very mild.
3	mild wet flt. in flights, clearing high W. S. W. w. flights of r.	7.50	$\frac{35.00}{0}$	12.00 $\frac{34.00}{0}$ flights of rain & broken clouds, intervals of sun thine, high S.W. wind, thick & very mild.
4	thick and calm, clear sun.	7.50	$\frac{26.00}{0}$	11.50 $\frac{17.00}{0}$ star light, thick and calm.
5	fine, overcast and gloomy.	7.45	$\frac{12.00}{0}$	12.00 $\frac{29.00}{0}$ E. drifting sn. damp sn. & S. w.
6	high N. W. w. clear, pouderic.	7.45	$\frac{4.00}{0}$	12.20 $\frac{0}{8.00}$ keen N. W. calm. fl. l. & fine m.
7	clear and calm, the Ther. not above 0 the whole day.	7.30	$\frac{0}{15.00}$	11.50 $\frac{0}{12.00}$ gentle airs from N. W. star and moon light.
8	grey all day.	7.50	$\frac{4.00}{2.00}$	snow about 1 P.M. ther. $\frac{2.00}{0}$
9	grey moon. grey, clear N. W. w. very keen.	0.30 7.45	$\frac{0}{4.00}$	10.50 $\frac{0}{5.00}$ clear N. W. airs, moon light.
10	grey, calm and sunshine.	7.45	$\frac{0}{14.00}$	11.00 $\frac{0}{2.00}$ at 2 P. M. ther. at $\frac{18.00}{0}$ and at 3 P. M. at $\frac{3.00}{0}$ clear and keen N. W.
11	fine calm western airs.	7.48	$\frac{0}{1.00}$	12.30 $\frac{4.00}{0}$ fine moon light.
12	fine.	7.40	$\frac{0}{5.30}$	11.15 $\frac{0}{5.00}$ some fl. E. airs & haz. horizon.
13	thick, snow and easterly drifts.	7.45	$\frac{10.00}{0}$	11.30 $\frac{23.30}{0}$ snow, done snowing, overcast.
14	overcast, snowing.	7.45	$\frac{28.00}{0}$	12.20 $\frac{26.00}{0}$ snow all day till 7 P. M. thick.
15	th. clearing, fine & western airs.	7.45	$\frac{20.00}{0}$	11.00 $\frac{21.00}{0}$ thick and hazy.
16	overcast, fair mild day.	7.40	$\frac{16.00}{0}$	11.05 $\frac{14.30}{0}$ overcast S. W. wind.
17	overcast, inclined to snow.	7.40	$\frac{10.30}{0}$	11.20 $\frac{12.00}{0}$ overcast, calm.
18	clearing to the N. W. flights of very light snow.	7.35	$\frac{5.00}{0}$	11.20 $\frac{6.30}{0}$ calm, fl. overhead, thick horizon.
19	gr. cle. fine N. W. w. f. shine.	7.30	$\frac{1.00}{0}$	11.45 $\frac{6.40}{0}$ fine all day, star light.
20	gr. a gleam off, thick incl. to sn.	7.30	$\frac{10.00}{0}$	12.00 $\frac{5.30}{0}$ grey all d. fl. l. & high S. W. w.

Jan.	Remarks before Noon.	<i>h. m.</i>	<i>h. m.</i>	Remarks after Noon.
21	clear and strong N. W. wind.	7. 30	12. 00	keen N. W. all d. calm fl. light.
		0	0	
		3.00	7.30	
		0	0	
		14.00	6.00	
	very keen, clear N. W. wind,	7. 30	00. 52	very keen & clear all day, wind
	fine f. & cloudless sky. thought	0	0	W. N. W. fl. light & very cold.
22	the coldest day hitherto felt	9. 52	3. 55	
	this season.	11. -	12. 00	
		0	0	
		10.00	15.00	
		0	0	
	N. W. wind and extreme cold,	0	00. 30	keen & clear all day wind N. W.
23	bright sun all day. Shut-	7. 15	4. 45	keen clear star light.
	tleworth's F. Thermo. } 24.00	20.00	12. 00	
		0	0	
		0	9.00	
		0	4.00	
24	high wind and clear moderat <sup>e</sup> .	7. 30	8. 15	high wind and northern lights.
		0	0	
		8.00	12. 00	
		0	0	
25	clear and calm.	7. 20	0	
		0	0	
		2.00	0	
		0	0	
26	star light and calm.	1. 20	11. 45	clouds gathering.
	calm and clear.	7. 33	0	
		0	0	
		7.00	0	
		0	0	
27	overcast—some beams of sun	7. 45	11. 00	cloudy and calm.
	in course of the day	0	0	
		2.00	0	
28	thick, overcast & calm, light sn.	7. 30	11. 45	light snow and overcast.
		0	0	
		11.30	12.00	
29	overcast, clear noon.	7. 35	12. 00	star light and calm.
		0	0	
		1.00	0	
30	hazy horizon.	7. 20	11. 25	hazy and calm.
		0	0	
		0	28.00	
31	snowing.	7. 40	4. 45	snowing fast with East wind,
		0	12. 00	wild high W. wind, snow and
		0	30.30	flying clouds.
		0	0	

## F E B R U A R Y. 1792.

Feb.	Remarks before noon.	<i>h. m.</i>	<i>h. m.</i>	Remarks after Noon.
1	overcast W. wind in squalls.	7. 30	12. 00	blustering W. wind, driving the
		0	0	fallen snow, wind moderating,
		25.00	20.00	but cloudy.
2	hazy, cleared towards noon	7. 20	12. 00	clear and star light.
	with W. wind.	0	0	
		19.00	15.00	
		0	0	
3	grey, thick, fine mid day.	7. 40	12. 00	calm and thick.
		0	0	
		12.00	26.00	
		0	0	
4	grey, clou. break <sup>e</sup> , in the N. W.	7. 35	3. 00	very warm clear f. shine & calm.
		0	0	
		33.30	39.00	
		0	0	

XI. *Discoveries made in the Western Country, by General PARSONS.*

*Middletown in Connecticut, October 2, 1786.*

S I R,

THE frequent publications I have lately seen of accounts, said to have been given by me of my discoveries in the Western Country, many of them misrepresented, and some of them totally without foundation, induces me to execute a purpose I had long since entertained, of communicating to the Society for promoting Arts and Sciences in your state, such observations as occurred to me in my journey into that country, and the discoveries there made. It appears to me of consequence, that information of facts, which may tend to throw light upon any inquiries in the natural world, should be given to some literary society, where all facts and observations, being carefully compared, our reasoning on the subject may be with more certainty; and old principles confirmed, or new hypotheses established with more accuracy.

I left the settled parts of Pennsylvania the latter part of October last: and not to mention the large limestone springs frequently to be found in the county of Cumberland, sufficient to turn mills within a few rods of their issuing from the ground, and other curiosities I never saw before; about the 25th of that month, I passed the Allegany mountains, in the old Pennsylvania road. The ascent of about three miles  
is.

is gradual and easy. On the summit is a large extent of land comparatively plain. It is about eight miles from the top of the mount on the east, to the beginning of the descent on the west; whence to the level on that side is about two miles and a half. This extent contains almost all soils and descriptions of land; from the sandy pitch pine barrens and stony heath, where there is no apparent moisture; to as fine ploughland and luxuriant pasture and mowing, as I had before seen. On this mount are several mill streams, and springs of excellent water. It is observable, that the ascent of all those hills and mountains from the east, is greater than the descent on the west: and from the extensive grand view on the top of the mount, from which the country on the west and on the east is seen to a great distance, it is clearly discovered that the level of the country on the west, is vastly higher than the level on the east of the mountains. I had no instruments to determine the difference of those levels; but the fact is easily discerned by the eye. In travelling to this place, I observed the stones were pitched in the earth inclining to the horizon in angles of  $30^{\circ}$  or  $40^{\circ}$ ; very few if any lay horizontally; and in general in a direction from the N. E. to the S. W: which is a circumstance I do not remember to have found on the west of that ridge of mountains.

I arrived at Pittsburgh the 30th, three hundred and twenty miles from Philadelphia. This is a place conveniently situated for carrying on the interior commerce of that country. It stands on a point at the conjunction of the  
Allegany

Allegany river (which extends about two hundred miles N. E. from this place) and the Monongahela; which in its meanders waters a country south eastward about three hundred miles. From this point begins the river Ohio, which after running in its serpentine course, more than eleven hundred and eighty miles, and receiving in its progress many large rivers from the east, and from the west, falls into the Mississippi in about Lat.  $36^{\circ} 40'$ . At Bedford, on my road to this place, I was informed by Col. Wood, of many curious discoveries lately made in the West Country: among others, that, in digging a cellar at a place called *Wheeling*, ninety seven miles down the Ohio, at several feet depth in the earth, was discovered a stone wall laid in *lime*. I arrived at *Wheeling* the 3d of November, and made strict inquiry into this account; and was informed by Mr. Zanes, an intelligent, sensible man, and one of the legislature of Virginia, that in digging for a cellar, not far from that place, had been discovered a wall some feet under the earth, very regularly laid up, apparently the work of art; but he knew nothing of the circumstance related of its being cemented with *lime*. From this, on the fourth, I went to Grave Creek, twelve miles down the river. Here is a mound of earth, plainly the work of mens' hands, called an Indian grave. It is of a conical form, in height about eighty feet. It ascends in an angle of about  $45^{\circ}$ . The diameter at the top is about sixty feet, the margin enclosing a regular concave, sunk about four feet in the centre. Near the top stands an oak, about three feet in diameter. I did

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not open this grave, but proceeded down the river about sixty miles to the mouth of the Muskingum: near this river are the remains of an ancient fortress; a plan of which I find has been transmitted you by President Stiles. As this is the same I furnished him, it will be needless to attempt a more particular description of it. On the ruins of this work, has grown a white oak, now more than three feet diameter, which has an appearance of having sprung from the decays of a tree in the same place. This however, is conjectural, there not being so great evidence, as to render the fact certain.

After two days spent here, I proceeded on my journey about three hundred and eighty miles, without any extraordinary discoveries, to the great Miami. At the great Konahway and sundry other places, we found Indian graves similar to, but not as large as that at Grave Creek. Finding that the bones of a large animal had been discovered about thirty two miles from this station, curiosity led us to make search for them. Accordingly an excursion was made to the Big Bone Lick, the place where those bones were found. This place is a resort of all species of beasts in that country. A stream of brackish water runs through the land, which is a soft clay. About twenty acres are almost clear of trees, and are surrounded by higher lands. At this place were found, some on the surface, and some at a depth of four feet and more in the ground, the bones of the animal. An entire skeleton we did not find, but of different parts we brought off about four hundred pounds. A thigh bone  
entire.

entire measured forty nine inches in length. Parts of several jaw bones were found, but not an entire one. Some teeth were found in, and some out of the jaw, one of which I herewith send you. Part of a tusk we also had: two of the teeth I brought home; one, the corresponding tooth of the opposite jaw, is at Yale College: the other bone we boxed and left at Pittsburgh. Of this animal the natives have no tradition, but that which is so fabulous, that no conjecture can be aided by it; unless it be, that the animal was a carnivorous one. It is observable, that the bones of this animal are only found near salt licks, and in low soft grounds.

In my progress further down the Ohio to the Rapids, nothing occurred worth communicating to your society; unless the petrifications at the Rapids, and in sundry other places near the river, may be an object of attention. That elementary water does not possess this quality, I suppose to be an opinion too clear, to admit of objection. The greatest quantity of petrifications, I saw, were at the falls. I was there when the waters were low, and the flat stones which extended across the river, and over which the waters generally flow, were bare, on both sides the river, as much as one fifth of a mile on each side. On the S. E. side, I observed no petrifications. On the N. W. side, they were in great plenty, of almost every kind of vegetable production; and in every stage of the process, from their native state, to a perfect stone. Hornets' and birds' nests, nuts, roots, branches of trees, leaves, bones, &c. &c. were in great abundance,

ance. They appear at first, by accident, to be left resting on the stones ; and the water exuding from the adjoining bank, falls gently on the stones ; and glides almost imperceptibly over them, and brings with it some adhesive quality, which slightly fixes the resting body to the stone on which it lies ; and an external incrustation is first formed around the body ; whence the petrification is continued, till the whole mass becomes a perfect stone, retaining fully its original shape. It is evident, that the stone, on which these petrified vegetables are formed, is also a vegetable ; and grows up about the resting body, until in some instances the stone perfectly covers it. We were obliged in many instances to make use of picks, to break the stone or rock to a depth of several inches, to sever the petrified body from it. Whether the matter possessing this petrifying quality is known, or can be discovered, and separated from other earth, so as to become useful as a cement or otherwise, I will not pretend to assert.

In this country I was informed, that pieces of earthen ware, the common utensils of a family, are often dug out of the earth, some feet under the surface ; and at Muskingum, in digging the trenches for their pickets, a number of pieces and one entire brick, were found buried two or three feet deep. Not thinking it proper to open the mounds of earth, supposed to contain the bones of the dead, whilst the Indians were in treaty with us ; I desired the commanding officer, to open them at the Miami, after the Indians had gone ; and also left the same request at Muskingum, with an officer

officer of learning, and great curiosity in his observations in the natural world : and to inform me of their discoveries ; extracts of whose letters I herewith send you. The Indians have no tradition what nation ever buried their dead in the manner we discovered them. The trees on the Indian graves and ancient fortifications (of which there are great numbers in that country) appear to be coeval with the adjoining forests. On the whole, I am of opinion, that country has been thickly peopled, by men to whom the necessary arts were known in a much greater degree than to the present native Indians of that region : but I am transgressing my own system, and shall return to facts only, and let others form hypotheses. Among the Indian nations in general, I find an appearance of a radical similitude in language ; but this is not universally true ; the Huron, or Wyandot language, having no affinity to the Shawanese, Delawares, and other nations. I do not remember to have heard a single word in that language, which had the least affinity, in sound, with the words in other languages, expressive of the same idea. A few examples follow :

	<i>Shawanese.</i>	<i>Delawares.</i>	<i>Wyandots.</i>
Bear	Mauquah	Mough	Un-yeu-ech
Water	Nip-peh	Beh	San-doos-tea
Snake	Mon-na-too	Aukook	Kun-gun-fee
Deer	Seck-thee	Au-tooh	Ske-nun-took
Nose	O-chau-fee	We-ke-un	A-yonh-joh
Eye	Ske-sa-coo	Wus-kingd	Yau-pe-dah.

Among the tribes, there are as characteristick distinctions in features, size, and complexion, as between the French, Dutch,

Dutch, English, and other European nations ; and no small difference in their manners and habits. The Shawanese are generally of a small size, rather elegant in their features, and a very cheerful and crafty people. Counselling among their old people, and dancing among their young men and women, take up a great part of their time. The *Delawares*, on the contrary, are a stout, robust people ; have little of the vivacity of the *Shawanese*, and are more grave in their manners. They all agree in a firm belief of a supreme good spirit ; and also in the existence of evil spirits ; one the author of all good, and the other the cause of all evil : and also in a state of future existence.

I could not satisfy myself that there was among them any set worship paid to the Deity : except in some nations, *once*, and in others *twice*, in a year, a national feast was provided, to which the tribe is convened ; and the chief, before they eat, makes a speech to them, in which the duties they owe to the Supreme Being, and to one another, are explained ; at the close of their repast, he exhorts them to the practice of those duties ; and the whole is ended with a solemn dance.

The customs prevailing in some of the tribes, bear an affinity to the customs prevailing among the Jews (perhaps the same, or nearly might have been practised in early times by other eastern nations.) Women in travail are removed from the residence of the family to a hut provided at a distance : when delivered, their food is carried to them, and deposited near their door, for a number of days. The particular

ticular number, I find, I have not entered in my journal. After a certain number of days are ended (during which the wife is excluded from society) she returns home with her infant; and at the end of forty five days, is covered under the same blanket with the husband.

A woman, when her courses are upon her, maintains a silence, touches none of the family, eats by herself and retires.

Divorces are voluntary: either party puts away, and takes another mate at pleasure; but until the husband or wife is put away, adultery is considered as a high crime. Among the *O. 'oways*, it is punished, with biting off the nose of the woman. The children, on a divorce, are divided. Among some nations, if the number is uneven, the mother takes the greatest part.

If any useful inquiries can be aided by any things I have transmitted you, my intentions will be fully answered.

I am, Sir,

with great Respect,

Your obedient Servant,

SAMUEL H. PARSONS.

*President WILLARD.*



XII. *Barometrical Observations and Remarks, made during a Tour to Lake Champlain, by JAMES WINTHROP, Esq.*

F. A. A.

THE barometer, used in these observations, was prepared each time; the mercury being discharged after every observation, for the convenience of transportation. As, in common barometers, the scale of inches is adjusted

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to a mean height of the mercury in the tube, from which all the variations are measured; in this, the various height of the mercury is accurately measured from the surface of it in the cup. The inconvenience arising from this source is trifling; and always diminishes, as the area of the cup increases, in proportion to that of the bore of the tube. That every one may be able to ascertain the differences for himself, the diameters of the cup and tube shall now be exhibited.

Diameter of the cup in inches and decimals	2. 5.
Diameter of the whole tube	0. 45.
Bore of the tube	0. 3.

The observations were made only in the finest weather, when there was very little wind. The mean height of the barometer at Cambridge, in similar weather, is 29. 95.

August 1st, 1786, at half past nine in the forenoon, at Weathersfield in the state of Vermont, and at the high water mark of Connecticut river, the barometer stood at 29. 65. We immediately set out for the top of Ascutney, a very high hill in that neighbourhood. Our horses were left three miles from the top. At one o'clock, after a fatiguing walk of three hours, we were on the summit of the hill. Barometer 27. 7.

August 5th, 1786, at Williamston, in Vermont, a quarter after nine in the morning, barometer 28. 1. This town is situated on the height of land between the Connecticut river and lake Champlain; about forty five miles from the former, and fifty from the latter. The ascent in general, is easy on both sides. The place of observation was about  
fifty

fifty feet higher than a spring, that sends its waters easterly into the White river; which falls into the Connecticut, about five miles below Dartmouth College, between Norwich and Hartford. Westerly this spring, by means of the Onion river, communicates with Lake Champlain.

August 7th, at ten in the morning, on the beach at Burlington bay on the east side of the lake, Lat.  $44^{\circ} 15'$  N. about seventy miles southerly from St. John's, and thirty six northerly from Crown Point, barometer 29. 6.

August 8th, at 1h. 30'. P. M. on the banks of the Onion river, about thirteen miles westerly from Williamston, thirty seven easterly from Burlington bay, and forty three from the mouth of the river, barometer 29. 4.

The difference between the mean height of the barometer at Cambridge, and at each of the places, which have been mentioned, is set down in the following table, with the corresponding altitudes above the level of the sea, as taken from Martin's *Philosophia Britannica*. Vol. 2. p. 134.

	inches.	feet above the sea.
Connecticut river at the foot of Ascutney	0. 30	299
Top of Ascutney	2. 25	2031
Williamston	1. 85	1666
Onion river, 37 miles from the nearest part of the lake, and 43 miles from its mouth.	0. 55	514
Burlington bay	0. 35	342
Cambridge above the sea	0. 05	42. 5
R		Weathersfield,

Weathersfield, in Vermont, is about one hundred and fifty miles from the mouth of the Connecticut. The descent of that river is therefore, about two feet to a mile on an average. No current is perceptible in the lake, as I am informed, till we come near St. John's; which is about two hundred miles from Quebec. This latter place, being near the upper part of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, may be considered as near the level of the sea. The descent of water then, is, by the preceding table, about twenty or twenty one inches to a mile. Burlington bay is separated from Onion river by a point of land. The mouth of the river is about forty three miles from the place, where our observation was made on the banks. The descent is, by the same table, one hundred and seventy two feet; which is four feet to the mile: yet the rapidity of its current is not so great, as to occasion any inconvenience in fording it in the summer season. The width of the river is generally, where we had an opportunity of seeing it, from twenty to thirty rods; and its depth, in the channel at the fords, about two feet.

On September the 22d, 1780, I made the following barometrical observations at the Grand Monadnock, a large mountain between the towns of Dublin and Jaffrey, in New Hampshire. At the foot of the hill, the barometer stood at

	28. 4	1395 feet above the sea.
Immediately above the } woody region	27. 0	2682
At the summit	26. 4	3254
Mean at Cambridge	29. 95	42. 5

The

The general estimate has been, that if the barometer were carried upward ninety feet, the mercury would fall one tenth of an inch; but in Martin's table, which I have followed, only eighty five feet are allowed to the first tenth.

*Cambridge, August 23, 1786.*

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XIII. *A Table shewing the Probability of the Duration, the Decrement, and the Expectation of Life, in the States of Massachusetts and New-Hampshire, formed from sixty two Bills of Mortality on the files of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, in the year 1789. By EDWARD WIGGLESWORTH, D. D. F. A. A.*

ON examination of the bills of Mortality, on the files of the Academy, it appears that the society are under obligation to a considerable number of gentlemen, in different parts of the commonwealth, for the attention which they have paid to this subject. Since their formula has been dispersed through the state, many gentlemen have communicated bills of their respective towns, or parishes, with a topographical description of the same, which will lead to an investigation of the natural causes, which produce them, whenever it appears that particular diseases are endemial to any places.

Returns have been made from towns, scattered along the sea coast, from Nantucket on the south, to Portland in Casco-bay, on the north east, and through the counties of Middlesex, Worcester, and Hampshire, in a western direction. From  
Hingham,

Hingham, Ipswich, East Kingston, Dover, Portland, Edgarton, Waltham, Ashburnham, Brookfield, and Brimfield, they have been made for a long course of years. And though those, which have been made from other places, are for a shorter term; yet, as they are from places very distant from one another, it is presumed that the result, from a combination of the bills, will give a very just representation of the increasing population of this state and New-Hampshire, and the longevity of their inhabitants. At least, it will exhibit more authentic evidence on the last of these subjects, than has, as yet, been laid before the publick. Should there be any error in the deductions, there will be at least an approximation towards the truth; and the table will give the probability, decrement, and expectation of life, among the inhabitants of this state and New-Hampshire, with more accuracy, than has yet been done. Any errors in the deductions may be corrected, by taking the present result for the basis of a new combination with the bills, that may hereafter be communicated.

The whole number of deaths on the bills is 4893, which happened at the following periods of life.

Under 5 years		1942
Between 5 and 10	10	236
10	15	136
15	25	425
25	35	382
35	45	349
45	55	270
55	65	270
65	75	372
75	80	185
80	85	171
85	90	103
90	95	36
95	100	16

From these elements the table is formed, by taking the number of deaths as the radix of calculation. This would have given the proportional numbers of persons living, and dying at every age, from the birth to the latest extremity of life, had the annual number of deaths been equal to the births. But by the bills it appears, that the births are annually double to the deaths. Therefore, the number of persons of each age, as given by the table, is less, than is actually in life together, from an annual excess of 4893 births. Consequently the expectation of life is less than just, especially in the early periods of life.

THE TABLE.

Age.	Persons living.	Decrem. of life.	Expectation of life. yrs. dec.	Age.	Persons living.	Decrem. of life.	Expectation of life. yrs. dec.
At birth	4893	1264	28.15	20	2365	43	34.21
1	3629	274		21	2322	42	
2	3355	188		22	2280	42	
3	3167	132		23	2238	42	
4	3035	84		24	2196	42	
5	2951	58	40.87	25	2154	40	32.32
6	2893	55		26	2114	38	
7	2838	47		27	2076	38	
8	2791	40		28	2038	38	
9	2751	36		29	2000	38	
10	2715	28	39.23	30	1962	38	30.24
11	2687	27		31	1924	38	
12	2660	27		32	1886	38	
13	2633	27		33	1848	38	
14	2606	27		34	1810	38	
15	2579	42	36.16	35	1772	35	28.22
16	2537	43		36	1737	35	
17	2494	43		37	1702	35	
18	2451	43		38	1667	35	
19	2408	43		39	1632	35	

*Deductions from Bills of Mortality.*

Ages.	Persons living.	Decrem. of life.	Expectat. of life. yrs. dec.	Ages.	Persons living.	Decrem. of life.	Expectat. of life. yrs. dec.
40	1597	35	26.04	70	698	37	10.06
41	1562	35		71	661	37	
42	1527	35		72	624	37	
43	1492	35		73	587	38	
44	1457	34		74	549	38	
45	1423	27	23.92	75	511	37	7.83
46	1396	27		76	474	37	
47	1369	27		77	437	37	
48	1342	27		78	400	37	
49	1315	27		79	363	37	
50	1288	27	21.16	80	326	35	5.85
51	1261	27		81	291	34	
52	1234	27		82	257	34	
53	1207	27		83	223	34	
54	1180	27		84	189	34	
55	1153	27	18.35	85	155	21	4.57
56	1126	27		86	134	21	
57	1099	27		87	113	21	
58	1072	27		88	92	20	
59	1045	27		89	72	20	
60	1018	27	15.43	90	52	8	3.73
61	991	27		91	44	7	
62	964	27		92	37	7	
63	937	27		93	30	7	
64	910	27		94	23	7	
65	883	37	12.43	95	16	6	1.62
66	846	37		96	10	5	
67	809	37		97	5	3	
68	772	37		98	2	1	
69	735	37		99	1	1	

The whole number of inhabitants, according to this table, is 140182; of which 48183 are persons under 16 years of age; and 91999, above sixteen years of age. By the enumeration

meration of the inhabitants of Massachusetts, the whole number of free males under sixteen was 95453; and 87189, above sixteen. Therefore, 35851 persons under sixteen, must be added to those in the table under sixteen, to make the table accord with the enumeration; which will give 176033 inhabitants, produced by an excess of 4893 annual births. This addition will raise the expectation of a child just born, from 28 years and  $\frac{15}{100}$  to 35 years and  $\frac{47}{100}$ ; of a child of 5 years of age, from 40 years  $\frac{87}{100}$  to 48 years and  $\frac{46}{100}$ ; of a person of 10 years, from 39 years and  $\frac{23}{100}$  to 43 years and  $\frac{21}{100}$ ; of a person of 15 years, from 36 years and  $\frac{16}{100}$  to 36 years and  $\frac{16}{100}$ .

The annual excess of 4893 births above the deaths, on a stock of 176033 inhabitants, determines the period of duplication to be twenty five years and three tenths of a year. At this rate, the inhabitants of the five New England states are probably increasing at this time by natural population, without any consideration being had either to foreign or American accessions.

Similar bills, kept in the other states with the same accuracy that they have been kept here, would determine their natural population, with a degree of accuracy, which would be of utility to the publick; and would afford entertainment to persons of a philosophical disposition, both in Europe and America.

XIV. *An Account of a Curious and Singular Appearance of the Aurora Borealis, on the 27th of March 1781, by CALEB GANNETT, ESQ. F. A. A.*

THE Aurora Borealis is a phenomenon, which, though of great antiquity, if not observed by the first inhabitants of the earth; yet a satisfactory cause of it has never been assigned. Its region has been generally supposed that of the clouds. A greater elevation however has by some observers been suggested. Could sufficient data be obtained to ascertain its height, possibly it might be of great use in an attempt to investigate the cause. These data must be expected from repeated and careful observations of the aurora, and the several circumstances attending it, at different times. With this view is offered the following observation of an uncommon, and curious appearance of the aurora in the evening of the 27th of March last.

Mr. Mellen, the Philosophical Tutor in the University of Cambridge, being abroad in the beginning of the evening, gives the following account; that a dusky vapour, appearing like a cloud, lay extended along the horizon from N. N. W. to N. E. Its upper edge was uneven and changeable. Above it was a body of light, strong and vivid, which emitted streams of a pale colour, but bright, long, and frequent. About half past 9 o'clock, there arose nearly in the east, a column of steady light, inclining considerably to the south. From the upper side of this column, the light soon began to issue, not in flashes or streaks, but rather in a sheet like

like smoke driven by the wind. Its direction was towards the zenith ; and in a little time, crossing the meridian, it joined a column of fainter light ; which formed in the west soon after the forementioned column in the east. This ring or zone was at first faint, except where it began ; but continued to grow brighter, till the stars, which were observable through it, were much obscured. At 20 minutes past ten, I first saw it ; when its brightness began to diminish, and its situation was as follows. Its eastern extremity was very near the east point. The northern limit crossed the meridian at  $20^{\circ}$  S. of the zenith. Its western extremity was bounded by Aldebaran, whose height was  $5^{\circ}$ . Its breadth increased gradually from the east and west limits, to its meridian height, where it was  $5^{\circ}$  as determined by two stars on the Lion's hip, which were near the meridian, and bounded the zone on the north and south. Denel was on the south limit. A star of the second magnitude in the Lion's shoulder, was just within the northern limit. Vindemiatrix appeared in the middle of the zone, and Pollux, a little without the northern limit. It moved slowly towards the south, gradually decreased, and disappeared entirely by 11 o'clock.

In the Transactions of the Royal Society in London, is an account of a similar phenomenon, observed in Geneva, by Mr. Cramer, in 1730. The zone was terminated by two parallel arches ; and was diametrically opposite to the middle of the aurora borealis. The aurora and zone seemed much nearer one another in the horizon, than in the top. Supposing this difference entirely optick, and the parallelism of the two circles

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real,

real; the distance of the phenomenon from the earth, he says, might be computed. He however cannot admit the supposition, because the conclusion would be, that the phenomenon would have been distant at least  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the diameter of the earth, which is too great an altitude to believe. He had previously offered a conjecture, respecting the production of the zone, viz. from icy particles swimming in the air, and of such a figure, as to exhibit a great zone by the reflection and refraction of the light of the aurora, almost in the same manner as the drops of rain produce the appearance of the rainbow. Whether this hypothesis, incompatible with the forementioned conclusion, on account of the rarity of the atmosphere at that height, which renders it incapable of sustaining particles, whose specific gravity should be such as to cause the reflections and refractions necessary for such a phenomenon, might not bias his judgment, may be questioned. He mentions two arches, rising from the east and south east, meeting in the meridian, immediately afterwards parting, drawing back, and frequently repeating those motions. These arches must be supposed to originate from the same cause with that of the zone; but whether their motions agree with the cause conjectured, every one will judge.

Mr. Professor Greenwood, in an account of an aurora borealis, observed by him at Cambridge in 1730, affirms, that this meteor has been observed in New-England at different times, ever since its first plantation; which is contrary to the commonly received opinion, that it is of modern date in this part of the world. Its appearance however,  
was

was less frequent at the first settlement, than in the Professor's day. Perhaps, on examination, it will be found, that as the country has been cleared, the frequency of the phenomenon has increased. An uniform ratio however is not pretended. Future attention of the curious to this subject, will, it is hoped, enable them to give a solution of what has generally been supposed a mystery; and with which imagination has, in some instances, played not less fantastically in the eye of reason and philosophy, than is common for the phenomenon itself to do in the view of a spectator.

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XV. *Letter on the Darkness in Canada, in October, 1785.*

*From the Honourable WILLIAM HEATH, ESQ. F. A. A.*

*Roxbury, December 30th, 1785.*

S I R,

HAVING from the commencement of the American war, to the present time, kept a journal of occurrences, and for a number of years past, added thereto remarks on the seasons, weather, &c. on observing in the publick papers an account of the phenomenon, in the Province of Canada, on the 9th, 15th, and 16th, of October last, I was led to examine my journal for the state and appearance of the atmosphere at this place, on each of the days before mentioned; by which I find, that on the 9th of October, the wind was part of the day southeast, and the other part southwest, the weather fair, cool, and pleasant; the 15th, wind easterly, the atmosphere foggy. About two o'clock, P. M. it began to grow

grow uncommonly dark, which continued to increase for some time, during which the atmosphere exhibited a yellow hue; a few drops of rain fell, and there were several very heavy claps of thunder at a distance to the northwest; the wind at this time shifting to different points almost round the compass, in a very short time. As the darkness diminished, the sun became visible through the fog, looked red, and to appearance resembled the full moon at night, in the month of May. In the evening the wind was southerly; the 16th, wind southwesterly, fair, warm, and pleasant.

Comparing the foregoing, with the state of the atmosphere in Canada, as described in the late publications, is it not probable, that the large quantities of exhalations and vapours, with which it was charged on the 15th, and which apparently extended from Canada to this place, were by the southwesterly wind, on the night of the 15th, driven northward, and being opposed by a northeasterly wind, such an abundance were forced together, over Quebec, and other places in Canada, as from the state of the atmosphere, and vaporous particles, extended to such an height, as to occasion the darkness in that quarter, and by condensing, descended in the heavy showers mentioned; and had the northeasterly wind prevailed against the southwesterly, the darkness might have been in New-England on the 16th? But of this the learned and curious in meteorological observations, can better determine; and is humbly submitted to your Excellency.

I have the honour to be,  
with the greatest respect,

Your Excellency's  
most obedient servant,

W. HEATH.

*His Excellency* JAMES BOWDOIN, *Esq.*

*Some Particulars of the Phenomenon in the Province of Canada, in the Month of October, 1785, as published in the Independent Chronicle, at Boston, December 22d.*

*Quebec, October 20th, 1785.*

“ON Sunday the 9th instant, between four and five in the afternoon, an uncommon darkness was perceived here, though at the same time the atmosphere over this city appeared of a fiery, luminous, yellow colour: this was followed by squalls of wind and rain, with severe thunder and lightning, which continued most of the night, a thing uncommon here at this season, it having froze considerably the night before.”

“On Saturday the 15th, about fifteen minutes after three in the afternoon, it became darker than it had been the Sunday before, and the sky of much the same colour: it was succeeded by a heavy shower, and very severe thunder and lightning.”

“Sunday morning the 16th, was quite calm and foggy, till about ten o'clock, when there arose some wind from the eastward, which partly expelled the fog: in about half an hour after it became so dark, that ordinary print could not be read within doors: this was followed by a squall of wind and rain, when it brightened up again. From five till ten minutes after twelve, the darkness was so great, that the ministers in the English and Presbyterian churches were obliged to stop till they got candles. From two o'clock, till about ten minutes after, it was as dark as midnight, when there is no moonlight. From forty three till about fifty minutes after

after three o'clock, it was total darkness ; and from thirty five till forty five minutes after four, it was very dark. The people in this city dined by candle light ; and spent a part of the afternoon in lighting up, and extinguishing them. Each period of darkness was followed by gusts of wind and rain, with some severe claps of thunder, and the atmosphere looked as before described. It was remarked, that on the days before mentioned, there appeared to be two adverse currents of air, the uppermost impelling a luminous strata of clouds towards the N. E. and the lower driving with great rapidity broken misty clouds towards the S. W. and that the rain water which fell on Sunday during those gusts, was almost black."

*" Montreal, October 20th.*

" ON Sunday the 16th instant, the air was darkened by a thick fog, which dissipated about ten o'clock. The atmosphere was of a luminous, fiery colour. About two o'clock in the afternoon, it became dark by degrees, in such a manner, that about half an hour after two, people could not see one another in the houses. This lasted twenty minutes, and was followed by lightning, thunder, and rain, which gradually diminished the darkness : it was however, very difficult to read without candle light at three o'clock. This period was of short duration, for the darkness came on again at seven minutes past three ; and it grew by degrees as dark as before, insomuch that no night ever was more obscure than it was at this time. The black clouds dispersed about fourteen minutes past three ; but lightning, thunder, and a heavy rain continued till about half after five."

It

It is said, that just after the total darkness at Quebec, "a large ball of fire fell into the river, near a large ship, which was seen by many: It caused an uncommon agitation in the water."

W. HEATH.

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XVI. *Observations on Trees, as Conductors of Lightning.* By  
Mr. HUGH MAXWELL.

Heath, June 21st, 1787.

SIR,

I HAVE no manner of doubt, but that your Society will very readily attend to every kind of information that is designed to propagate useful knowledge; and as freely to answer every honest inquiry, although from ever so obscure a quarter. And I hold it a duty incumbent on every person to offer such communications; and to make such inquiries as may tend to serve the publick.

I have observed, that the lightning often strikes the Elm, the Chesnut, every species of the Oak, and Pine, and sometimes the Ash, with many other sorts of trees: but I cannot recollect, that I have ever seen the Beech, the Birch, or the Maple, struck by lightning. I have made inquiry among the small circle of my acquaintance; and I cannot find, that any person has ever observed the effect of the lightning on these sort of trees. Now, sir, if this is really the case, that the lightning does not touch the Beech, the Birch, or the Maple (as I think it to be) then the question will arise

rise in my mind, whence the reason of it? Is it from the shape and form of the tree? Or, is it in the nature and quality of that sort of wood, to resist that which has been judged by many to be irresistible? Or, do those trees conduct the lightning, without any injury to themselves? If it should appear, that those trees are not liable to the stroke of lightning, and the reasons appear, why they are not, then perhaps, it may be of service to erect our buildings in whole, or in part, with these sorts of timber. But I must leave the improvement of the hint to the gentlemen of your Society for propagating useful knowledge. And if the same, or similar observations have been made by others, I have this consolation, that my intent in this is to serve my country, which fully rewards

your most obedient,

and very humble servant,

HUGH MAXWELL.

*His Excellency* JAMES BOWDOIN, Esq. F. A. A.

XVII. *Experiments in Electricity*. By Mr. JOHN VINALL.

*Boston, May 23d, 1790.*

SIR,

IN making use of my large electrical machine, which is constructed with both a positive, and a negative conductor, the air being humid, and consequently unfavourable for electrical experiments, I made use of a small iron pan with some coals under the machine, in order to qualify the surrounding atmosphere, so as to answer my purpose.

By

By accident I burned my thumb with the pan so much, as to cause me great pain. Knowing that in some instances, I had been relieved of slight burns, by holding the part affected to a common fire, I held my thumb a small distance from the *negative* conductor; put the machine in motion; and to my surprise, found that in a few seconds of time, the effects of the burn were destroyed; my thumb perfectly at ease; and no blister arose, as would have been the case if I had not made use of electricity. I met with a similar instance not long after: I made use of the same remedy, and received the same benefit.

A few weeks after this discovery, one of my daughters scalded her arm from her wrist to her elbow, with the steam from a tea kettle, which produced a great inflammation upon the part, attended with much pain; and it is highly probable a blister would have succeeded. I desired her to hold her arm to the *negative* conductor; and in a few minutes, the pain ceased, the redness subsided, and her arm was perfectly cured.

I never read, or heard of an experiment of this kind being made in electricity: Therefore, I esteemed it my duty to lay it before the Academy of Arts and Sciences, that gentlemen might be induced to make experiments from this hint, which may be of great service to mankind, and an improvement in *medical electricity*.

I have the honour to be, with sentiments of esteem,

Sir,

your obedient humble servant,

JOHN VINALL.

Hon. JAMES BOWDOIN, ESQ. *President of the* }  
*American Accademy of Arts and Sciences.* }

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XVIII. *Observations on the Effects of Light on Vegetation.* By  
Hon. JAMES WARREN, ESQ. F. A. A.

Milton, January 25th, 1786.

GENTLEMEN,

THE investigation of the economy of plants is a subject of universal importance to mankind; and has accordingly engaged the attention of the philosopher, as well as the husbandman. But, from the intricacy that attends it, it has hitherto disappointed the researches of the first, and the observations of the last, at least in the most useful and material questions; among which I think are, What is the food of plants? In what manner is it received into their vessels? And how it operates, to produce such benefits to man and other animals? These are yet subjects of discussion and dispute; and are advanced no farther than the conjectures of those, who hold different sentiments on different systems which they have adopted; each of which is far from establishing that decision, which can lead the practical farmer to a certain and successful process in cultivation. We know, in many instances, that light has a great influence on the growth of plants; and perhaps, they cannot subsist without it. But this is a general provision of nature; and can receive but little addition from the industry of the husbandman. It seems to be rather a *sine qua non*, than a discovery of the *desiderata* we wish for. However, it is difficult, if not impossible, to conclude, that an instance of the effect of light on vegetation may not, in some cases,  
lead

lead to a solution of the above questions. I therefore, beg leave to communicate an extraordinary instance, related to me by a gentleman of undoubted veracity in my neighbourhood. The account is as follows: On going into a cellar, which he used for the preservation of roots in the winter, and kept close and dark, he discovered, in the south east corner, a very small hole, which admitted a little light; and that a vine proceeding from a potatoe, accidentally left in the north west corner, had pursued a direct course to the aperture in the wall; and after running twenty feet on the cellar floor, ascended the wall, and without any deviation in its whole course, went out at the hole. This is the strongest instance of the effect of light on the growth of plants, that has fallen under my observation; and being so extraordinary, will, I hope, apologize for this communication, if it produces no other effect, than amusement to the curious.

I am your obedient,  
humble servant,

J. WARREN.

*To the AMERICAN ACADEMY of ARTS and SCIENCE.*



XIX. *A Letter concerning Gay Head. From the Reverend*  
SAMUEL WEST, D. D. F. A. A.

*Dartmouth, October 9th, 1786.*

S I R,

**Y**OUR Excellency undoubtedly remembers, that I was appointed by the Academy to be a committee, to examine the mineral productions of Gay Head, and to submit

mit them to a chemical analysis. I invited Dr. William Baylies of Dighton to be my assistant.

On the 28th of June last, Dr. Baylies, Col. Pope, myself, and two others, visited the Gay Head, with a view to make what discoveries we could. Dr. Baylies has drawn up a very full account of the voyage, and the principal curiosities, which we saw. He has given me liberty to transmit his account to the Accademy. His letter has superseded many observations, which I otherwise should have made.

The inhabitants presented us with a petrified bone, said to be one of the vertebræ of the whale, which they told us they found in the cliff: It is very heavy, owing, I apprehend, to a metallick impregnation. They also brought us two shell fish, which were petrified: These were taken out of the cliff. There are many signs of a volcano, which the Dr. has accurately described. The Dr. and I dug out some pieces of charcoal at the bottom of the cliff, the height of which we judged to be an hundred and fifty feet. Some of the pieces seem to be charred more imperfectly than others. Some of the vitriolick springs are very strongly impregnated with the taste of copperas; others have more of an aluminous taste. We found in the cliff many efflorescences of copperas: These green efflorescences were always in a bed of blue clay. We found a white crumbly earth, interspersed with white shining particles. These shining particles melt in a moderate heat and soon calcine. I suppose them to be of the gypseous kind. The Dr. observes in

in his letter, that "we found hard heavy pieces of matter, sparkling with small granulated particles of a white colour imbedded therein." Judging that this substance from its specific gravity, must contain in it something metallick, I determined to submit it to a chemical analysis. With this view, having reduced some of it to powder, I went to a goldsmith, and desired him to assist me in examining this substance. The matter being put into a crucible with some salt petre, in a moderate heat, we perceived a sulphurous smell. We raised at length a pretty strong red heat. A strong smell of sulphur continued, until it was succeeded by a pretty strong arsenical smell. When we had driven off all the sulphurous and arsenical fumes, we found nothing left but a little black cinder. Upon this I concluded, that the sulphur and arsenick had volatilized all the metallick parts. I then took the matter being reduced to powder, and having washed away the earthy and strong part, I submitted the residuum for some hours to a gentle torrefaction. Judging that I had sufficiently volatilized the sulphur and arsenick, I took the matter and put it into a crucible with some salt petre and tartar; and after having kept it a considerable time in a strong red heat, the matter was taken out, and we found a metallick button in the bottom of the crucible. The lower part of the button was somewhat whitish in appearance; and the upper part, of a reddish hue. It soon tarnished in the air, and became all over a dusky colour. It was hard and very brittle, not having the least degree of malleability in it. The quantity was about a fifth of the matter, which we put into the crucible. I judge

judge it to be sulphurated iron mixed with copper or some other metal; for it appeared to be slightly attracted by the magnet, which is an evident proof that a considerable part of it must be iron. In addition to what the Dr. has observed, that there must formerly have been a volcano on the Gay Head, I would inform your excellency, that an elderly man, who was in company with us, told me, that his mother had informed him, that she could remember when it was common to see a light upon Gay Head in the night time. Others informed me, that their ancestors have told them, that the whalemens used to guide themselves in the night by the lights that were seen upon Gay Head.

I desire your Excellency would communicate my letter, together with Dr. Baylies', to the Academy, at the next meeting. I am with great respect,

your Excellency's most obedient,

humble servant,

SAMUEL WEST.

*His Excellency* JAMES BOWDOIN, *Esq.* F. A. A.

XX. *Description of Gay Head.* By Dr. WILLIAM BAYLIES, F. A. A.

*Dighton, July 1st, 1786.*

SIR,

I HAVE, at length, executed the design, which I had formed, in consequence of an invitation from the Reverend Mr. West, of visiting Gay Head. In company with him, Col. Pope, and two others, I sailed from Bedford, in an open

open two mast boat, early on Wednesday morning. A northerly wind carried us down the river into the midst of the bay, in an easy, agreeable manner. A calm then coming on, with a hot sun, and a constant rolling of the boat, I grew exceedingly sick. Nothing could alleviate my disagreeable feelings, but a view of Gay Head, through Quick's Hole, at the distance of about fifteen miles. A variety of colours, such as red, yellow, and white, differently shaded and combined, exhibited a scene, sufficient to captivate the mind, however distressed. In about two hours, a fresh breeze sprung up from the southwest. This obliged us to run west, to take the advantage of an opening between two of the Elizabeth's islands, several miles above Quick's Hole. On entering this, the Vineyard sound was full in sight, at about a mile a head. There the waves were very high and boisterous; and contrasted with the smoothness of the waters in the bay, formed rather an object of terrour. But we soon passed it in safety; and landed on the north side of Gay Head, about a mile to the east of its northwest extremity. This we did to avoid the rocks. We beckoned to two young Indians, whom we saw on the hills above us. They immediately came; and, by the promise of a little rum, our boat was hauled up on the beach; the stores unloaded, and carried to an Indian house. Thither we followed; where I proposed refreshing myself with a dish of tea. Col. Pope joined me; but Mr. West's curiosity carried him directly on to the cliffs. During our repast, our landlord informed us, that Gay Head was between three and four miles in length, and two in breadth: and was almost

most separated from the other part of Martha's Vineyard by a large pond. The Indians inhabiting this part, when lately numbered, amounted to two hundred and three. The land produced Indian corn, rye, potatoes, peas, flax, and beans; but in small quantities, since the British General Gray deprived them of their sheep, which animal greatly enriched their soil. They now had recourse to the whites, on the east end of the island, for a supply of bread corn. Their cattle were almost starved through the winter; and of course, gave but little milk in the summer, though furnished with a plenty of sweet feed. They burned nothing but bushes, this part of the island affording no wood; and suffered much from the cold in the winter, though peat was procurable in plenty. As to religion, they were divided between the congregational and baptist persuasion: an Indian of the latter preached to them every sabbath; but they were seldom favoured with a congregational teacher. After our refreshment, we made for the cliffs. In our way, we found the soil to be good; wanting nothing but industry and proper management to render it capable of producing every kind of vegetable in perfection. It was rather light and dry, consisting of a greyish sand, and vegetable mould, two feet or more in depth, intermixed with portions of a darker coloured earth. It manifests to the taste a strong impregnation of the vitriolick acid; and contains many bright shining particles. Underneath this to a level with the sea, it is made up of a mixture of ochrey, sandy, stony, marly, and loamy earth, tasting also of the vitriolick acid. The water seemed to be tolerable; one spring  
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in particular, had nothing disagreeable or foreign in its taste, but on the contrary was quite sweet and palatable.

After our arrival at the cliffs, we looked round for a place of descent. This, in a little time, we found. But, I must confess, I proceeded on with great caution, and some fear; knowing that one false step would bring me to the bottom much sooner than I could wish. On one side, we had a red, unctuous, argillaceous earth; on the other, a blue, white, and yellow one, variegated with grey, black, and green spots, and masses of charcoal under our feet. When we had descended, on looking back, the idea of a volcano struck us at once. In fact, it had all the appearance of having blown out but a few days. That it was formerly a volcano, was confirmed by a further examination. Large stones, whose surfaces were vitrified; great numbers of small ones, cemented together by melted sand, and also cinders were to be seen in many places. A black, sooty, powder, similar to lamp black, and made use of by painters to serve the same purposes, under which a whitish matter resembling the gypseous earth calcined intermixed with the same kind of earth uncalcined, were to be found in great quantities. Besides, there are very plain marks of four or five different craters. The most southerly, and perhaps, the most ancient, as it is grown over with grass, now called the Devil's Den, is at least twenty rods over at the top, fourteen and a half at the bottom, and full one hundred and thirty feet at the sides; except that which is next the sea, where it is open. Add to this, a tradition prevalent among the natives: In former times, the Indian God, Moiship,

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resided

resided in this part of the island; and made the crater, described above, his principal seat. To keep up his fires, he pulled up the largest trees by the roots; on which, to satisfy his hunger, he broiled the whale, and the great fish of the sea, throwing out the refuse sufficient to cover several acres. He did not consume all himself; but with a benevolent hand, often supplied them with food ready cooked. To facilitate the catching these fish, he threw many large stones, at proper distances, into the sea, on which he might walk with greater ease to himself. This is now called the Devil's bridge. On a time, an offering was made to him of all the tobacco on Martha's Vineyard, which having smoked, he knocked the snuff out of his pipe, which formed Nantucket. When the Christian religion took place in the island, he told them, as light had come among them, and he belonged to the kingdom of darkness, he must take his leave; which, to their great sorrow, he accordingly did; and has never been heard of since.—Had this been a Grecian or an Egyptian fable, how many volumes of explanations, resolutions, and comments, it would have given rise to!

We tarried on the island till between twelve and one o'clock the next day, walking round, ascending, descending, and examining the cliffs. We reckoned they were about a mile and a half in extent, and in height 150 feet. They appeared to be composed principally of clays, of all colours, and unctuous to the touch. The red, used as a paint, undoubtedly derives its colour from the calx of iron. The blue shoots out copperas in considerable plenty; and we found

found hard heavy pieces of matter, sparkling with small granulated particles of a white colour, imbedded therein. This, it is probable, will afford something of the metallick kind. There were also other large heavy pieces of a reddish colour, resembling manganese. Small streams of water ran down the sides of the cliffs, more especially in the morning; every one of these had more or less of the vitriolick taste.

The bones of whales, sharks' teeth, and petrified shellfish, are frequently picked up, scattered up and down the cliff, at a considerable distance above the surface of the water.

The sea, it is said, has made great encroachments on this part of Gay Head. Within thirty years, it has swept off fifteen or twenty rods. Had Neptune thus demolished part of Vesuvius or Ætna, up to their very craters; and laid open all their secrets, how would the curious in Europe have flocked from all quarters to behold a scene so full of wonders! But Gay Head is scarcely mentioned in America.

The wind being favourable, we launched our boat; and run, against the tide, to Bedford, thirty miles at least, in three hours and a half.

I am,

with great respect,

your humble servant,

WILLIAM BAYLIES.

*To the President of the Academy.*

XXI. *List of Forest and other Trees, Northwest of the River Ohio.* By WINTHROP SARGENT, ESQ.

*Boston, January, 1787.*

MR. Sargent does himself the honour of presenting to his Excellency Governour Bowdoin, the President of the Academy of Arts and Sciences, a brief descriptive list of the forest and other trees, N. W. of the river Ohio to the latitude of  $38^{\circ}$ . They are not well arranged, but in the same order in which they fell within his observations; and were noted merely for comparison with the woods east of the Allegany Mountains, and for his own private satisfaction. A suggestion from one of his friends, that this list may possibly contribute to the natural history of North America, induces him to offer it to his Excellency with most respectful compliments.

Oaks: Spanish, Black, White, and Chesnut Oaks, from eighteen inches to six feet diameter; Swamp White Oak, from twelve inches to five feet; and Black Jack Oak, to two feet; another species of White Oak, not large, smooth bark and bearing a sweet acorn: two feet diameter is the largest.

Yellow and White Poplar, six and eight feet diameter, and very lofty. Canoes of seventy feet length, and five feet breadth, are made of them, and capable of transporting thirty five horse load of skins.

Elms, of six feet diameter.

Sugar Tree or Sweet Maple, of five feet diameter; very beneficial to the country, as great quantities of sugar and almost

almost sufficient for the consumption of the people are made from the juices of these trees. Curled Maple, to five feet diameter.

Sycamore, from two to fifteen feet diameter; and the larger kind always hollow to ten or eighteen feet, and from thence separating into two or three limbs or branches.

Black Walnut, from two to six feet diameter. White Walnut or Butternut, from two to four feet diameter.

Cherry Tree, from two to five feet.

Black Ash, three feet diameter. White Ash, to five feet diameter. Hoop Ash, of three, and three and a half feet diameter.

Chestnut, from one to six feet diameter.

Black Hickory, with a small thin shell nut, and from one foot to five and a half diameter. White Hickory produces a small bitter nut, eaten only by the turkeys, and is from one to four feet and a half diameter, and excellent rail timber. Shell Bark Hickory produces a very fine long nut of one inch and three quarters, and is from one to five feet diameter.

Sassafras, from bushes to trees of three feet and a half, and in use for canoes.

Honey Locust or Jerusalem Thorn, from six inches to three feet, armed in the trunk and limbs with sharp thorns, and producing a sweetening very proper for beer, as it causes immediate fermentation. The Black Locust is a very durable wood, and in use for pins and gate posts; grows from six inches to two feet and a half diameter.

Beech

Beech produces a small nut in high esteem, and grows from one to four feet diameter.

Spruce Pine grows on cliffs near heads of waters, and is of the same qualities with the northern Beer Spruce; it is from one to three feet diameter. White Pine grows lofty, and to three and four feet diameter, but not in plenty. Pitch Pine, to three feet diameter, and producing tar and turpentine.

Red Cedar, of two feet diameter. White Cedar, eighteen inches.

Buck Eye or Horse Chesnut, of three feet diameter, and producing a bad nut.

Lynn, of three feet and a half diameter, a light white wood very proper for finishing the inside of dwelling houses. Cucumber Tree, of two feet diameter, a soft light wood, which may be applied as Lynn.

Here is a tree very much resembling the Sumach, growing tall, and to two feet and a half diameter. Sumach grows single, generally to eight inches diameter, and thirty feet high, producing abundance of berries.

Gum Tree, which is applied for wheel naves, is of three feet diameter.

Black and Yellow Birch, to two feet diameter. The bark of the latter is used by the Indians for making canoes.

Iron Wood, close and firm, to fifteen inches diameter.

Dog Wood, of twelve inches diameter.

Aspen Tree, two feet diameter.

Box Elder, from six inches to two feet, and a very crooked tree.

Mulberry

Mulberry Trees, growing on bottoms and rich uplands, eighteen inches diameter.

Crab Apple Trees, producing very plentifully of small fruit, and growing from six to fourteen inches diameter.

A variety of Plumb Trees, growing from seven to eight inches diameter, and bearing fine fruit.

White Thorn, very plenty, in the low grounds of creeks and cold land, from four inches to twelve in diameter.

Black Haw, four inches diameter, and producing good fruit. Red Haw.

Papaw, from six feet to twenty in height and six inches diameter, growing on rich shaded bottoms and north sides of hills, in best lands, and producing a most luscious fruit, in bunches or clusters of threes and fives, resembling cucumbers of about four inches, except that the ends are more round. They have in them seven large seeds, of the bigness and colour of tamarind stones, and the leaves of the tree are very large, long, and like an inverted spear.

Service Trees, to twelve inches diameter, and producing a red fruit of the berry kind, much admired by the bears, and for which they are very often broken down by those animals.

Hazel, Alder, Elder, Large Laurel, Nine Bark, Spice, and Leather Wood Bushes. Leather Wood bark is an excellent substitute for cord, answering on many occasions (particularly in packing) all the purposes of hempen strings: it grows only in low and very rich lands.

XXII. *Account of a Skeleton of a Large Animal, found near Hudson's River.* By the Rev. Mr. ROBERT ANNAN.

Boston, December, 1785.

S I R,

*The following Narration was drawn up, soon after the discovery therein mentioned, was made. But my removal from the State of New-York to this town had so deranged my papers, that, for a long time, I was afraid it had been lost. If you think it worthy a place in your curious collections, it is at your service.*

ROBERT ANNAN.

IN the fall of the year 1780, whilst I resided in the state of New-York, on the banks of a small river, named the Walkill, about seventy miles from the city of New-York, and fifteen miles in a perpendicular line on the west side of Hudson's river, a young man, whom I had employed to drain a deep and wet swamp on my farm, digged up the remains of a very surprising animal, without taking notice of any thing except the grinders. The bones were become so soft, that the spade cut them almost as easily as the clay. After breaking one of the grinders, he threw them on the side of the ditch ; and being a stranger to contemplation, took no further notice of the matter, only on coming home at night, said among the servants, that he had found some strange stones in the ditch. I heard nothing of the affair at that time : but within a day or two after, went out to see the

the work, and discovered the grinders. I brought them home, ordered them to be washed ; and, placing them in the order in which I fancied them to have stood in the animal's jaw, sat down astonished, musing over them for a considerable time. That same day I sent for a gentleman in the neighbourhood, a native of this country, and who had travelled much through it, to know whether ever he had seen any similar to them. He was as much astonished as myself. We went to the spot, and fell eagerly to digging. We found a large number of bones, but mutilated, rotten, and broken. It was impossible to handle many of them, without breaking them. We found the vertebræ or joints of the back, lying in a row, as they had been when the animal was alive : but the line, in which they lay, run out into the ditch, when all was marred ; and in lifting them up they broke. We then discovered on one side of them, near to where they began, what we supposed to be the loin joint. We worked very carefully about it ; and got it up ; but it also fell in two pieces. On putting the pieces together, it measured twelve inches in diameter. A part of the tibia of this remained ; from the cavity of which I extracted some thick viscid matter, resembling tar mixed with blood. We found another bone of a spherical form on one side. And though cut through by the spade, so as the cut encroached on the spherical part, its diameter measured six inches. It appeared to be the convex part of a joint ; though more oblate than is common in other animals. The grinders were four in number. All belonged, it is probable, to one jaw ; two to one side of the mouth, and two to the other.

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The two innermost were exactly alike, and also the two outermost, or those which had been placed next the fore teeth. Each of the innermost measured three inches and a half in breadth, and four and a half inches in length. Each of the two outermost measured in length, rather more than seven inches, and in breadth, somewhat more than three and an half inches : but declined in breadth towards the fore-teeth. Two of these grinders had lost the cor, and nothing remained but the hard hollow ivory case. The other two retained each so much of the cor as was above the gums, in which were apertures for the insertion of the nerves ; the largest of these apertures with difficulty admitted the point of my little finger. These grinders are exceedingly indented. One deep furrow runs the whole length of them ; and, when placed two and two, as they must have stood in the jaw, there were four indentures, or furrows across that long line, which divided the surface of each pair into ten protuberances, rising in a pyramidical form, the perpendicular height of the highest of which was about an inch and one tenth. I should here remark, that each of the innermost grinders had four of these protuberances, and each of the outermost six : but some of them were considerably worn down by the animal's grinding its food ; and it was easy to perceive, not only on the superficies, but also on the sides of some of them, evident marks of friction ; the innermost chiefly bore these marks. The protuberances are rough, and of a dark grey colour ; but when smoothed, by friction, appeared white and polished, as the finest ivory. What could this animal be ? Certainly not a marine monster, for  
it

it lay above a hundred miles from the sea : unless we can suppose, that not many centuries ago, that part of the country was covered by the sea. From the appearance of its monstrous grinders, it would seem as if it had been of the carnivorous kind. A gentleman who came to see the remains of it, told me, he had seen the skeleton of an elephant ; but the biggest joint in it was much inferior to what I have described as the loin joint ; though it is probable, it had lost much of its magnitude. Doctor Michealis, physician general of the Hessian troops, who, with some other gentlemen, came to my house, after the peace, and before New-York was evacuated, in order to make further search (in which however, he was frustrated, by heavy rains having fallen) said he could not think it had been an elephant, as being in his opinion, much larger. He carried some of the bones to Germany with him. And others were sent to the museum in Philadelphia, kept by Mr. Semittien ; and some were destroyed by careless country people, whilst I was abroad. Shall we, sir, suppose the species to be extinct over the face of the globe ? If so, what could be the cause ? It is next to incredible, that the remains of this animal could have lain there since the flood. May there not be some of the kind yet surviving, in some of the interior parts of the continent ? Comparatively little of it has yet been explored. Some gentlemen, with whom I have conversed, have supposed that their extinction (as it is probable they are extinct) is owing to some amazing convulsion, concussion, or catastrophe, endured by the globe. But I know of none that could produce such an effect, except the flood. Earth-  
quakes

quakes might destroy some of them, but not all. And the remains of them have been discovered in different parts of the world. His Excellency, General Washington, came to my house to see these relicts. He told me, he had in his house a grinder which was found on the Ohio, much resembling these. And in the American Magazine of December 1746, there is an account of a tooth and bones, of what the author calls an elephant, discovered in England, which, I am persuaded, must have been of the same species. I shall conclude this narrative with the devout and rapturous exclamation of the Psalmist "Great and marvellous are thy works, Lord God Almighty!"

I am Sir, with much respect, your most  
obedient, and humble servant,

ROBERT ANNAN.

To the PRESIDENT of the AMERICAN }  
ACADEMY of ARTS and SCIENCES. }



XXIII. *A Description of a Horn or Bone, lately found in the River Chemung, or Tyoga, a western Branch of the Susquehanna, about twelve miles from Tyoga Point: Communicated by the Hon. TIMOTHY EDWARDS, of Stockbridge, Esq; in a Letter to the Rev. JOSEPH WILLARD, D. D.*

January, 1788.

"IT is six feet nine inches long, twenty one inches round, at the large end, and fifteen inches, at the small end. In the large end is a cavity, two and an half inches in diameter,

eter, much like the hollow which is filled with the pith of the horn of the ox : This is only six inches deep. Every other part is, or appears to have been solid. The exterior part, where entire or not perished, is smooth ; and in one spot of a dark colour. The interior parts are of a clear white, and have the resemblance of well burnt, unslacked lime stone ; but these can be seen only where it is perished, tender, and broken. From one end to the other, it appears to have been nearly round ; and on it there have been no prongs or branches. It is incurvated, nearly into an arch of a large circle. By the present state of both the ends, much of it must have perished ; probably two or three feet from each end. From a general view of it, there is reason to believe, that in its natural state, it was nearly a semicircle of ten or twelve feet. The undecayed parts, particularly the outside, send forth a stench, like a burning horn or bone. Of what animal this is the horn or bone, and what has become of this animal, are questions worthy of the curious and learned."

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XXIV. *Observations on the Manufacture of Pot Ash.* By  
AARON DEXTER, M. D. F. A. A.

HAVING had frequent applications from the manufacturers of pot ash, to examine that article, when condemned by the assay masters, I have been led to several observations, which are generally the result of experiments, respecting its defects, and the causes of its impurity. From  
a conviction

a conviction that those defects may be easily remedied, I have committed my remarks to paper, with a concise history of the manufacturing of this salt, which I beg leave to submit to the consideration of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. And if after their critical examination, they shall be thought to contain any useful hints, they will dispose of them as they think proper.

It is unnecessary to premise, that the great evil which injures the sale, and very much reduces the value of some of the American pot ash, arises from foreign matters, such as common salt and earth, being accidentally mixed with it.

The furnaces, and machines, or apparatus, commonly used in this country for extracting the salts from the ashes, and for boiling and fluxing them, are undoubtedly of a good kind.

The first important object to be observed, is to extract all the salts from the ashes. For this purpose, rain or river water ought always to be preferred. The ashes should be saturated, and remain with about an inch of water over the top of them twelve hours at least. Then a small opening may be made in the bottom of the leach tub, which ought to contain a strainer, in order to prevent the ashes from running off; or a false bottom may be used to advantage. The lie discharged is fit for immediate use. As soon as the manufacturer begins to draw it off, he must apply fresh water; and continue that application, and boiling the lies, until they are so reduced in strength, as that they will no longer pay the expense of boiling. The ashes are however,  
still

still to be preserved; and fresh water applied as before. And, when drawn off, they may be used with profit on fresh ashes, as long as there remain in the lies any salts, which may be discovered by the taste.

The lie that runs off for use, should be filtered as it passes the bottom of the tub; and also as it runs into the receiver; which process may be performed without any expense or inconvenience. Previous to boiling the lie, it ought to stand twenty four hours; and then be drawn into the kettles with great care, so as to leave all the sediment behind. Every precaution should be taken to let nothing fall into the lies previous to, and whilst boiling. Therefore, that injurious practice of laying wood on the kettles for drying, must be avoided.

Strong lies may always be boiled half away in the first operation, and others much more: after which they must be taken with care out of the kettles, and put into a receiver at hand. Being so shifted, a very small quantity of unslacked lime may be put into it, which serves to clarify, and at the same time, renders the lie more pungent to the taste. Or, a quantity of lime may be mixed with the ashes, which will answer the last purpose.

After standing quiet until it cools to the state of blood heat, it must be again shifted; and in drawing off the lie in every instance, the utmost care must be taken that all the sediment, which is generally a chalky earth, is detained; which process will effectually separate all the common salt:  
for.

for that will congeal and crystalize with hot water in the same quantity as with cold water ; which is not the case with any other neutral salt or alkali. If after all, from any circumstance unforeseen, the lies shall not appear pure and clean, after taken from the last sediment, they must stand quiet until another is formed ; or until it appears, that no other will form. Should one form, it must be separated as before, prior to its being put into the kettles for the last operation. Without these precautions, the pot ash, in consequence of neutral salts, and a chalky matter which are obtained from the ashes, will be hard to flux ; and require a long time to effect it ; which will greatly endanger the kettles ; and after it is fluxed, will be very impure ; and sell for a reduced price, if the owner be fortunate enough to find a market at any rate.

The pot ashes which I have examined, that have been condemned by the assay masters, I have found to contain principally common earth ; which is undoubtedly the chief source of impurity in the pot ash of this country. If any crystals of common salt or nitre appear in the sediment, they may be preserved and purified by an easy process, which is known to people in general, who have attended to the manufacturing of saltpetre.

After the lie is properly cleared from earthy matter, and common salt, which not only retards the fluxing process, as has been observed, but renders it unfit for many uses, particularly the bleaching of linens ; it must continue boiling  
until

until evaporation shall cease. Then the fire must be increased, until the salts are perfectly fluxed, for the purpose of destroying the inflammable substance, with which most of them abound; which may be determined by the following simple method. Take some pot ash and dissolve it in water. Let there be as much pot ash as the water will dissolve. Then plunge a piece of silver coin, or any thin plate of silver into the solution. If the pot ash contain any inflammable matter, it will change the silver to a dark or black colour, in the same manner as if it had been over the steam of burning sulphur. By this easy experiment, the manufacturer will be saved the expense and mortification of carrying pot ash to market, which must sell for a very reduced price. Should the workman discover, on the experiment being made, the inflammable principle, or what is called by the workmen, the oily substance, or fire, to exist in the pot ash, it can be remedied only by dissolving it in pure water, and boiling it down and fluxing it a second time. Or, it may be made into pearl ashes, by calcination, with little expense.

Some manufacturers may be discouraged from going through this process, by the labour necessary in shifting the lie so often. But if they consider the advantages they will obtain in fluxing their pot ash, which will be effected in less than half the time required in the usual way, and the great saving in the expense of kettles, by the lies being made clean and pure, they will be reconciled to the method, notwithstanding the trouble; as their interest will be found, on experiment, to be concerned in its adoption; and as their pot ash will find a more speedy market; and obtain a high-

er price. Besides, the manufacturer, and the merchant will never be doubtful of their adventures. And the reputation of American pot ash will be equal, if not superiour to any that is manufactured in Europe.

The subject of pot ash making has frequently been before the legislature, and applications made for premiums, by people, who have no doubt acquired useful knowledge in the business. This circumstance, and a wish to render service to the publick, are the only motives which have induced me to commit these observations to the Academy. I have endeavoured to avoid prolixity, and all chemical terms, as I wish to be understood by people concerned in this branch of business; all of whom may not have had the means of obtaining a perfect knowledge of them.



XXV. *Second Essai sur des Eaux de Boston. Par M. FERON.*

LORSQUE j'ai eu l'honneur de communiquer à l'Académie mon essai sur les eaux de Boston, j'ai dit n'avoir découvert aucune substance métallique. Depuis ce tems, on m'a communiqué, que certaines eaux de Boston avoient des qualités particulieres, telque de jaunir, noircir, et avoir mauvais gout, &c. Celles que je connois jusqu'à present, sont, celle de M. *William Greenleaf*, à coté de son magasin, dans

XXV. *Second Essay on the Boston Pump Waters. By M. FERON.*

WHEN I had the honour of communicating to the Academy my essay on the waters of Boston, I observed, that I had not discovered any metallick impregnation. Since that time, I have been informed, that some of the springs in that town had certain particular qualities, such as of staining yellow and black, and that they had an unpleasant taste. Those I refer to now, are Mr. *Greenleaf's* well, near his store, in the

dans la rue qui conduit de *Brattle Street* au Marché ; celle de *M. Joseph Hall's still house, by the Mill Pond*, et celle de *Mrs. Newman, Fore Street*. La saison ne m'ayant pas permis de les analyser toutes, je ne communiquerai à l'Académie que celle de *M. Greenleaf*.

Ce puits situé dans l'endroit mentionné ci-dessus, a de vingt à vingt cinq pieds de profondeur, sur environ trente de circonference. Sa source est si considerable, qu'elle peut fournir en douze heures une quantité d'eau suffisante pour le remplir.

L'eau présente des differences essentielles dans un espace de tems illimité. *M. Greenleaf* m'a communiqué, qu'ayant pompé de l'eau très transparente, sans odeur, et sans presque de gout ; trois ou quatre heures après, voulant pomper de nouvelle eau, il la trouvoit opaque, ayant de l'odeur, et beaucoup de gout, enfin hors d'état d'être employé à aucun usage domestique : le même espace de tems apres, quelque-fois

the street, leading from Brattle street, to the Market ; that of Mr. Joseph Hall's distill house by the Mill Pond ; and of Mrs. Newman in Fore street. The time not permitting me to analyze them all, I shall confine myself at present to the water of Mr. Greenleaf's spring.

This well, situated in the street above mentioned, is from twenty to twenty five feet deep, and about thirty in circumference. Its source is so considerable, that it will fill itself in twelve hours.

The water presents very different appearances at different times. Mr. Greenleaf has informed me, that having pumped out very fine transparent water, without smell, and almost without taste ; in three or four hours afterwards, he has drawn from the same pump, water that was opaque, of a disagreeable smell, and strong taste ; in short, absolutely unfit for any domestick uses ; and then, in the same space of time, or perhaps a little

fois plus tard, elle redevenoit potable, et cela dans toute saison. On verra par l'analyse suivante la difference, que j'ai trouvée du soir au matin suivant.

En observant pendant longtems, on pourroit peut-être donner des raisons satisfaisantes d'un changement si subit. Un puit situé un peu au dessous, et que M. Greenleaf m'a dit être fourni d'eau par le sien, pourroit peut-être aider à rendre raison de ce fait. Mes hypotheses ne me satisfaisant pas à ce sujet, pour les communiquer à l'Académie, je me contenterai dans ce moment à donner l'analyse de l'eau : J'observerai que cette analyse ne pourra se dire complete, que quand on l'aura répétée un nombre de fois, à differens tems vu l'inegalité de de ses resultats.

Voici ce que m'a fourni la premiere analyse.

L'eau avoit une apparence un peu opaque, une odeur désagréable, un gout nauséabond, astringent. En la versant de haut, elle petilloit. Son poids est de cinquante grains par

a little longer afterwards, it would be good and wholesome again: and these changes were observable in every season. It will be seen by the following examination, what difference was observed from night, to the next morning.

Perhaps after long observation, we might be able to give satisfactory reasons for so sudden a change. There is a well a little below, which Mr. Greenleaf says is supplied with water from his: this circumstance might perhaps assist us to an explication of the facts. My hypothesis however, is not so satisfactory, as to induce me to submit it to the Academy, and I shall content myself at present, with the following analysis of the water; observing that this analysis cannot be called complete, till the experiments have been often repeated, and till we have at different times observed the inequality of the several results.

The first examination was as follows:

The water appeared a little opaque, having a bad smell, and a nauseous, astringent taste. Poured from on high, it sparkled. It is fifty grains in a pint\* lighter than distilled water,

\* An English Quart.

par pinte (A) plus légère que l'eau distillée. Sa température est de 42 deg. le thermometre étant à l'air libre à 46. Elle ne dissout point le savon. Examinée sur le champ, elle donne, une tincture rouge, foncée, tirante sur le noir, avec la rhubarbe, ; une cramoisie, tirante aussi sur le noir, avec la cochenille ; une bleue tres foncée, avec le bois de Campêche ; et une pourpre foncée, avec la poudre de noix de galle : l'esprit volatil fournit un précipité en petils flocons grisâtre ; et la lessive pour le bleu de Prusse, des flocons jaune ou ochre.

Par l'addition de quelques gouttes d'huile de vitriol, elle devenoit parfaitement transparente ; il ne paroissoit point d'ebullition. Cette eau devenoit laiteuse par l'addition de quelques gouttes de dissolution d'argent, ou de mercure, par l'acide nitreuse ; elle deposoit un sediment de meme couleur.

Un gallon, mis en evaporation, a fourni cinquante-huit grains de résidu, couleur grisâtre meleé de jaune. Aussitôt que l'eau commence à chauffer, il s'en dégage beaucoup d'air ;

(A) Quart of Boston.

ter. Its temperature is 42 degrees, when the thermometer stands at 46° in the air. It will not dissolve soap. Examined on the spot, it strikes a deep red inclining to black, with rhubarb ; a crimson inclining also to black, with cochineal ; a dark blue, with logwood ; and a deep purple, with nutgalls : volatile spirits produce a greyish precipitate, in small flocculi ; and the phlogisticated alkali throws down a yellow sediment or ochre.

By adding some drops of oil of vitriol, this water becomes perfectly transparent, without suffering any ebullition. A solution of silver, or of mercury, in the nitrous acid, makes it milky ; and lets fall a sediment of the same colour.

A gallon leaves on evaporation, fifty eight grains of a greyish residuum mixed with yellow. As soon as the water begins to boil, it eliminates a great deal of air, and forms a thin

d'air ; et il se forme à la surface une pellicule mince, couleur de perle. Pendant l'évaporation, une terre jaune et très légère, tirante un peu sur le brun, s'attache au bord du vase supérieurement ; on peut la recueillir ; elle est de dix grains par gallon : elle ne paroît être qu'une ochre très déliée, mêlée d'un peu de terre calcaire.

Si on fait bouillir cette eau promptement, cette terre, ou ochre, se dépose au fond du vase. L'eau a perdu alors beaucoup de ses qualités martiales, comme on le verra ci-après.

Si on dissout ce résidu dans l'eau distillée, il reste sur le philtre une terre grise mêlée avec l'ochre, et qui en étant séparée, n'est autre chose que celle dont j'ai parlé dans mon essai. Le sel que l'on obtient, est d'environ vingt-quatre grains par gallon. Il est le même que celui des pompes en général : les seules différences sont, qu'il est moins coloré, et ne laisse point de mauvais gout sur la langue.

Si

a thin pearl coloured pellicle on the surface. During the evaporation, a very light yellow, brownish earth adheres to the sides of the vessel above, to the amount of ten grains to a gallon : it appears to be only a fine ochre mixed with a little calcareous earth.

If the water is made to boil violently, this earth, or ochre, subsides to the bottom of the vessel. The water seems then to have lost much of its martial impregnation, as will be seen hereafter.

If this residuum be dissolved in distilled water, there remains on the filtre a grey earth mixt with ochre, which being separated, is no other than what I have mentioned in my essay. The salt obtained amounts to twenty four grains in a gallon ; and is the same with what is commonly found in pump waters : the only differences are, that it is not so high coloured, and leaves no bad taste.

If

Si on expose cette eau pendant quelque tems à l'air libre, elle perd une quantité assez considérable de bulles d'air : elle ne devient point transparente, mais perd sa mauvaise odeur, son gout nauséabond, et un peu de son astringence : elle dépose une ochre dissoluble dans les acides, environ trois grains par pinte, et se couvre d'une pellicule couleur de perle : elle ne dissout point le savon : donne une teinture jaune, tirante sur le rouge, avec la rhubarbe ; une cramoisie, avec la cochenille ; une rouge, tirante sur le cramoisie, avec la cochenille ; une rouge, tirante sur le cramoisie, avec le bois de Campêche ; et avec la noix de galle, une couleur peu différente de celle que l'on obtient d'avec l'eau pure : l'alkali volatil donnoit un précipité blanc ; la lessive pour le bleu de Prusse donnoit à l'eau une légère couleur verte.

Si on fait bouillir cette eau pendant un instant, elle présente les mêmes phénomènes que dessus, c'est à dire, qu'après avoir été exposée à l'air libre environ vingt quatre heures.

#### L'EAU

If the water be exposed to the open air for a little time, it discharges a considerable quantity of air bubbles : it does not become transparent, but loses its bad smell, its nauseous taste, and a little of its astringency : it deposits an ochre, about three grains to a pint, soluble in acids, and is covered with a pearl coloured pellicle : it will not dissolve soap : gives a yellow, reddish dye, with rhubarb ; a crimson, with cochineal ; a red, inclining to crimson, with logwood ; and with nutgalls, a tinge very little different from that of galls in pure water : volatile alkali produces a white precipitate ; and the phlogisticated alkali for making Prussian blue gives a light green colour.

If this water be made to boil for an instant, it presents the same appearances as above, that is, after having stood twenty four hours in the open air.

#### THE

*Seconde Analyse.*

L'EAU étoit transparente, sans odeur, et ne pétillante point, un goût astringent léger ; vingt grains par pinte plus pesante que l'eau distillée ; sa température 42 deg. le thermometre à l'air libre à 44 : fournit une teinture jaune foncée, avec la rhubarbe ; une cramoisie, avec le cochenille, et la précipitoit ; un bleu légère, avec le bois de Campêche ; une brune rougeâtre légère, avec la poudre de noix de galle ; un précipité blanc, avec l'alkali volatil fluor ; peu de couleur et de précipité, avec la lessive pour le bleu de Prusse. Exposée à l'air, ne perd point, ou que très peu, de bulles d'air ; perd de son astringence ; devient tant soit peu opaque : ne dépose point d'ochre, mais un peu de sédiment blanc.

La dissolution de savon par l'eau de vie, de l'argent et du mercure par l'acide nitreux, les teintures avec la rhubarbe, la cochenille, le bois de Campêche, et la noix de galle, l'alkali volatil fluor, et la lessive alkaline pour le bleu de Prusse, ont donné les mêmes résultats qu'avoit donné l'eau de la première analyse, après avoir séjournée à l'air libre.

Si

*Second Analysis.*

THE water was transparent, without smell, not sparkling, having a light astringency ; its specific gravity twenty grains in a pint greater than that of distilled water ; its temperature 42° when the mercury stood at 44° in the air. It produced a deep yellow, with rhubarb ; a crimson, with cochineal, which was precipitated ; a light blue, with logwood ; a faint reddish brown, with galls in powder ; a white precipitate, with the fluor alkali ; and but little change of colour or precipitation, with the phlogisticated alkali. Exposed to the air it discharged little or no air ; lost its astringency ; became in a small degree opaque ; let fall no ochre, but a small quantity of white sediment.

A solution of soap in brandy, silver or mercury dissolved in the nitrous acid, the tinctures of rhubarb, of cochineal, logwood, and nutgalls, the volatile alkali fluor, and the lixivium of the phlogisticated alkali, gave the same results as were observed in the first experiments on the water, after having exposed it a while to the air.

Being

Si on la fait bouillir, elle ne change presque point, excepté qu'elle dépose une petite quantité d'ochre dissoluble par les acides.

L'évaporation a fourni le même résidu que dans l'analyse précédente, à l'exception d'environ dix grains par gallon de moins : la plus grande partie de ces dix grains, ochre.

D'après ces analyses, que peut on conclure ? D'abord, qu'en outre de la terre et du sel dont j'ai fait mention, une quantité de fer est dissoute par l'air fixe, ou gas mephytique : qu'elle fournit à peu près les mêmes résultats que les eaux de *Spaw* et *Pymont*, à l'exception de leur gout aigrelet. Pour m'en assurer plus positivement, je composai de l'eau artificielle de *Pymont* : elle m'a donné les mêmes résultats, sur tout quand je me suis servi d'eau de pompe en place d'eau distillée pour la composer.

Cette eau doit participer beaucoup des vertus des eaux de *Spaw* et *Pymont*, employées en Europe dans plusieurs maladies

Being made to boil, it shewed scarcely any change, except that it let fall a little ochre, soluble in acids.

Being evaporated, it left the same residuum as in the preceding analysis, except that it was about ten grains to a gallon less in quantity ; the greatest part of which ten grains was ochre.

From these experiments what are we to conclude ? It would appear first, that beside the earth, and salt mentioned, a quantity of iron is dissolved by means of fixt air, or the mephitick gas : and that it exhibits the same phenomena with the waters of Spa and Pymont, excepting the acidulous taste. To make the matter more certain, I made some artificial Pymont water ; which on trial, gave the same appearances, especially when I used common pump water instead of distilled water. This water must of course partake largely of the virtues of Pymont, and Spa waters, which are successfully employ-

maladies, avec beaucoup de succès. C'est aux medecins à en constater les bons effets par l'usage, et en observant les differens etats ou degré de l'eau quand ils l'employeront.

Il se présente une difficulté dans l'usage ; c'est son changement subit : cependant dans cet etat plus foible elle présente les mêmes vertus, mais à un degré peut-être inferieur. Il seroit possible, dans le tems où elle est forte, de la conserver en bouteille, comme on fait celles de *Spaw* et *Pyrmont*, en y donnant les mêmes attentions.

Si mes occupations et le tems que je passerai ici avant d'aller en Europe, me permettent d'analyser l'eau des autres puits dont j'ai parlé, elles donneront peut-être les mêmes resultats sans avoir le même inconvenient.

ed in Europe, in many diseases. It is the province of the physician, to demonstrate their good effects by trial, and by observing the different states, and degrees, in which they may be drank. If directing the use of this water is attended with any difficulty, it must arise from the sudden changes to which it is liable ; but in the state of its weakest impregnation, it seems to possess the same qualities, though perhaps in an inferior degree. In its highest impregnation, it might be preserved in bottles as the waters of Spa and Pyrmont are, if the same attention was employed.

If my engagements, and the time I have to spend before I embark for Europe, should permit me to examine the other springs mentioned, perhaps they might afford us the same agreeable qualities, without the concomitant inconveniences.

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XXVI. *On the Theory of Vegetation.* By NOAH WEBSTER, JUN. ESQ.

Hartford, June 12th, 1790.

S I R,

THE theory of vegetation is a subject in itself curious and amusing to a philosophic mind, and has always been

been considered in this light by rational enquirers after truth. But I question whether the true principles of vegetation may not furnish more useful and important lessons to our farmers than even philosophers generally imagin.

It is a well known fact that many vegetables, as clover, peas, beans, and vetches, help to fertilize exhausted fields, especially if *plowed in*, as the farmers call it. But I cannot find that the true reason of this effect is generally understood. I wish if possible to diffuse a knowledge of the cause, in full confidence that the principle may be applied to many beneficial purposes in agriculture.

Vegetables, when analized, are found to consist of water, earth, oil and salts. It seems to be the generally received opinion among philosophers, that the cementing principle, by which the component parts of vegetables are held together, is fixed air. With these substances there is united a portion of phlogiston; but the parts which contribute most to fertility are oil and salts. Now it is agreed among the learned, that vegetables are furnished with inhaling or absorbing pores, and that the pores of the leaves and branches serve the double purpose of alternately inhaling and exhaling, according to the temperature of the atmosphere. All this is admitted by modern philosophers, yet they contend that vegetables derive their principal nurrishment from the earth. It appears to me this cannot be true in the extent it is commonly supposed; for if true, I do not see how vegetables of any kind should enrich the land on which they grow, so rapidly as some of them do.

A crop

A crop of clover will fertilize an exhausted feeld, altho the clover is mowed, and the body of it carried from the feeld. But if the clover draws the principal part of its oil and falts from the earth, and the moft of the growth is cut and carried off from the feeld, one would think that inftead of enriching, it would impoverish the foil.

The constituent parts of vegetables are contained in the atmofphere; and it is rational to fuppofe that different vegetables imbibe more or lefs nurrifhment from the air, according to their different organization. Thofe plants which are of a firm texture probably imbibe moft of their nurrifhment from the earth; as flax and hemp, which require very rich land and impoverish the foil where they grow. But plants which are of a more fpongy texture, and whole leaves have larger pores, probably imbibe moft of their food from the atmofphere; as clover, vetches, peas and many other fucculent plants. This I take to be the reason why the latter enrich the foil where they grow; efpecially when fuffered to rot upon the foil. They imbibe the oily and faline fubftances from the air, and their veffels ferve as tubes to convey them to the earth.

It may be faid, that the particles inhaled by the leaves, during one part of the day, are thrown off by perfpiration, during another part. But it is only the moft volatile and fluid part of the nurrifhment which is thrown off in this manner, that is, the water. The exhalations of plants are moftly during the heet of the day; the procefs of abforption is principally during the night, and then is the time  
when

when vegetables grow most rapidly. This is a fact within every man's observation. The more solid parts of vegetables therefore, when imbibed, immediately cohere and attach themselves to the plant, and the watery particles only or principally are liable to be exhaled by common summer heat. It appears probable that the nurrishment of the more succulent plants, being mostly imbibed from the air, conveys more of the enriching substances to the roots, than is derived from the roots to the branches. And this may be the reason why a growth of clover will fertilize land, even when the body of the crop is carried off.

But whether this is true or not, it is a fact that vegetables do imbibe nutriment from the atmosphere, and this is undoubtedly the reason, why all vegetation will fertilize land, provided the whole growth is permitted to ferment and putrify upon the land. It is owing to this circumstance merely that land newly cleared is rich and fertile. The trees have for ages been inhaling the oil and salts of the atmosphere; the leaves and some of the limbs have been annually falling upon the earth, where they putrify and form a rich black mold, abounding with oil and salts, which were collected from the air. And I am surprized that our farmers, who are constant observers of these facts, have not attended more to the principles which produce them; for I do not see how men, who are constant eye-witnesses of the effect of putrified vegetables in fertilizing land, can suffer their old fields to lie barren for a number of yeers in order to become rich. The seed of clover, beans, peas,  
buck

buck wheat, rye, turnips, oats and almost any other plant the seed of which can be collected, would be purchasable at a small expense, and a crop or two turned into the most exhausted soil, would render it fertile. Suppose a man should sow three bushels of oats upon an acre, (and on poor land a large quantity of seed would be necessary) the expense would be 4*s.* and 6*d.* Add to this, a day's plowing in preparing the ground, and another, in plowing in the crop, when nearly full grown. The expense and labor are not considerable, and such a quantity of fresh vegetation, covered with earth, and there fermenting, would be equal to twenty, thirty or perhaps fifty loads of stable manure. The necessity of attending to these principles is increasing every day in this part of America, where a great part of the land is impoverished by long cultivation. To suffer old fields to lie without any vegetation upon them, except a spontaneous growth of weeds, is an immense loss to the farmer. The air contains the principles of fertility, but a barren earth will attract and absorb these principles very slowly, without the help of vegetation. The plowing of land has a good effect, especially just before winter, as by loosening the surface, it prepares the soil for receiving and retaining the salts with which the atmosphere is impregnated. But the most efficacious method of collecting the fertilizing particles of the air, is, to feed the earth with some of the succulent plants, which feed upon these particles.

It should be observed further that when the plants have obtained their growth, they should be plowed in; for being covered, they produce fermentation, and the oil and salts are  
all

all blended with the earth ; whereas when suffered to putrify upon the surface of the ground, they dry up, and their fertilizing substances are again mixed with the atmosphere. This remark, if true, exposes the absurdity of the practice of feeding cattle during winter, in the open field. In Rhode-Island the farmers have few barns ; the hay being stacked and their cattle fed upon the mowing fields. But the manure they leave upon the land is much less than the same cattle would make in a stable, or at least is less useful, from the manner in which it is cast upon the land. Besides vast quantities of hay are wasted, and being thrown upon the ground in a scattered manner, it produces no fermentation and little benefit to the soil. In addition to this, cattle exposed to the severe cold of winter, eat more hay, and do not grow to the same size, as cattle kept in a warm stable.

I have one remark more to make, which derives its force and propriety from the doctrine, that vegetables receive much of their nutriment from the atmosphere. It is, that in severe drouths the leaves of garden plants should be watered as well as the roots. We often hear gardeners say, that certain plants will die in a drouth, altho watered every day. Indeed it cannot be otherwise, when the largest part of the plant is almost destitute of nourishment. The roots of many plants will bear to be robbed of nourishment much better than the leaves ; thus a cucumber will live longer by watering the leaves than the roots. Copious dews will partially supply this pabulum for the leaves, and this perhaps is the meaning of that passage of scripture which says, "a  
mist.

mist went up and watered the face of the earth ;" as the case is still in some eastern countries.

I will close this letter, Sir, by relating an experiment I have lately made to ascertain the evaporation or perspiration of plants, growing in a damp cellar, unconnected with earth.

On the 9th of May I weighed two potatoes, on which the young shoots just began to appear. I placed them both in a dark corner of the cellar, on a dry piece of timber. I weighed them both on the 28th of the same month, and on the 11th of June. The result of the whole follows :

The largest weighed.

	oz.	pwt.	grs.		pwt.	grs.
May 9th,	1	18	19			
May 28	1	13	0	—loss of weight in 19 days	5	19
June 11	1	12	11	—loss of do. in 14 days	0	13

The smallest weighed.

	oz.	pwt.	grs.		grs.
May 9th,	1	0	8		
May 28	0	19	19	—loss of weight in 19 days	13
June 11	0	19	4	—loss of do. in 14 days	15

The shoots in the mean time had grown to the length of two and three inches. Those of the largest, when broken off, weighed 1 penny weight 7 grains ; those of the smallest, 18 grains ; so the actual diminution of the potatoes in 33 days, was 6 penny weight 8 grains of the largest, and 28 grains of the smallest.

The perspiration of plants is ascribed to the expansion of the air in the tracheæ, in consequence of being heated. The absorption

absorption of moisture is owing to the contraction of the air in the same vessels, which occasions the exterior vessels to dilate. Now a potatoe kept in a cool cellar of uniform temperature cannot perspire very freely ; and probably the similar roots, placed in water and exposed to changes of heat and cold in the open air would have thrown off by perspiration, twenty times the quantity of water, which those did in the cellar. At the same time, a vegetable confined to a dark room will flourish but indifferently, as it is deprived of an essential part of its food, phlogiston.

Whether this communication contains any thing new or sufficiently interesting to deserve the notice of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, is left wholly for you to determine. All I know for certainty is that it proceeds from a sincere desire to serve the agricultural interest of my country, and that I am, Sir, with great respect,

your obedient and

very humble servant

NOAH WEBSTER, JUN.

Rev. Dr. WILLARD.

Z

MEDICAL

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## M E D I C A L P A P E R S.

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I. *An Account of an Uncommon Case of Emphysema ; and of an external Abscess whose Contents were discharged by coughing.* By EDWARD AUGUSTUS HOLYOKE, M. D.  
F. A. A.

ON Tuesday, July 15th, 1783, I was desired by the gentleman who attended him, to visit a boy of about twelve months old, who he told me had been most severely handled by a peripneumony for ten days ; but that a very uncommon tumour lately appearing upon the child, made him desirous I should see him.

Upon viewing the patient, I found a large soft elastick flatulent tumour, evidently crackling under the fingers when pressed upon, as tumours arising from air in the cellular membrane, usually do. This tumour shewed itself all at once on the preceding evening, about seven or eight o'clock, as the child lay in its mother's lap, during, a violent fit of coughing, on one side of the neck, near the right *mastoid muscle* ; and by ten o'clock, the next morning, when I first saw it, it had spread across the neck, and up by the left ear, under the scalp, so as to cover the whole extent of the *crotaphite muscle* on that side ; on the left side, it extended no further up than the ear ; downwards, it spread on the breast below the paps on both sides, and to each *axilla*, and was evidently increasing, especially upon coughing.

The

The pulse was frequent, the flesh hot, the respiration, deep, frequent, and laborious to a great degree; the cough frequent and violent, and the mouth lined with *apthæ*; but none of these symptoms were increased (as I was informed) since the *Emphysema* had taken place: The child appeared in the utmost danger.

About one o'clock the same day, I saw the child again; the symptoms continued much the same; but the *flatus* had spread on the left side of the head up to the *vertex*; and farther down upon the breast; and farther round than the *axillæ*.

The next morning, Wednesday the 16th, the *Emphysema* occupied a larger space upon the the head, though chiefly on the left side still; had extended over both *scapulæ*; and had got further down on the breast, and indeed covered the whole *thorax* on the forepart, and on the left side passed over the oblique abdominal muscles down to the groin. The child had now a more cadaverous look; the hands were purplish, and the pulse plainly lower and more sunk; the difficulty of breathing still kept up; and we expected he would soon expire.

Thursday 17th, A. M. Matters in much the same situation as yesterday, only the tumour now extended over both sides of the abdomen, but did not pass over the *recti* muscles, covered almost all the back, and on the head, had passed over the *vertex*, and now covered the whole right side.

Friday 18th, the child still alive; the *dyspnœa*, cough, &c. still continued. He had taken no medicine, for twenty four  
hours

hours past, nor had swallowed any thing but a little drink. The tumour now covered the whole trunk, except a small area round the navel, and a narrow stripe both above and below it, upon the *linea alba*, which were free from all swelling; the whole neck was puffed up, and the head under the hairy scalp every where, except the back part; where the air seems to have been prevented from insinuating itself, by the pressure of the head, as it lay upon the pillow; the face was every where free, as also both the upper and lower limbs. This evening the child died; but to our great mortification, no persuasions could prevail upon the mother, to permit the body to be inspected. The appearance of the tumour upon the dead body, was much the same the next morning, as it had been before death.

To account for those uncommon appearances, I think we must suppose a communication some where, between the cavity of the lungs, and the cellular membrane; and as the first appearance of *Emphysema* took place in the neck, upon a violent fit of coughing; it seems highly probable that this communication was formed, by a rupture of the membranes of the *aspera arteria*, somewhere between its cartilages;\* and thus gave passage to the air from the lungs into the adjacent cellular membrane, at every expiration; and as the cough was very violent, the air would at every such effort more especially, be forcibly impelled through this opening, and thus extend itself wherever this membrane extended;

\* Possibly a small abscess might be formed between these membranes, and so by weakening them, occasion their bursting, upon a violent exertion in coughing.

tended; at first indeed more rapidly, but still continue to extend, till the resistance which the air met with, in passing out at the opening, was equal to the force by which it was expelled from the *trachea* in expiration or in coughing.

This solution of these appearances cannot be ascertained, as we were not allowed to open the body, and whether it will be thought admissible I cannot determine; but as another case which fell in my way not a great while ago, may throw some light upon this, I will take the liberty to relate it.

A man about fifty three or fifty four years old, of a thin habit of body, labouring under a very bad cough, attended with a hectic fever, profuse sweats, &c. had a large tumour formed upon the upper part of the thorax on the left side, extending from the shoulder, all along the lower edge of the clavicle, to the *sternum*, about the breadth of a man's hand. This tumour had all the appearance of a large abscess; it was accordingly treated as such, and supuration seemed to be coming on as usual; but on removing the dressings one day, I found the tumour (though the skin remained whole) less prominent to the eye, flabby to the touch, and the pain and inflammation abated. I was now at a loss what to make of the case, as the abscess seemed too far advanced to expect discussion. While I was thinking of the matter, the patient asked me, "what could occasion that blubbery noise (as he expressed himself) in the fore?" Upon which, applying my ear near the part where he perceived the noise, I plainly heard a whizzing, and

as.

as he termed it, a blubbering noise at every breath, exactly resembling such as arises from the rushing of air through a small orifice. This orifice appeared to be just under the left *clavicle*, but nearer to the shoulder than the *sternum*. Upon viewing the part attentively, a small dilation and contraction was perceptible upon expiration and inspiration; and the part was evidently puffy and flatulent to the touch. At this time the cough was urgent, and the expectoration very copious.

From this time, the tumour, inflammation, and hardness, subsided; the noise in breathing gradually lessened, till it ceased; and by the assistance of pectoral medicines, the bark, &c. the hectic and cough after a while left him; and with them the sweats, &c. his appetite returned, and he recovered his strength, though slowly; and is at this time in tolerable health.

In this case I think it certain that the inflammation penetrated to the lungs, which no doubt adhered to the *pleura* in this part; and the abscess bursting inwardly, the matter was discharged through the *trachea* by the assistance of the cough, which was at this time very constant; but the cavity of the lungs having now a communication with the cavity of the abscess, some of the air from the lungs would pass at every expiration into this cavity; but would not diffuse itself in the cellular membrane and produce general *emphysema* in this case, as in the case first mentioned, probably because, the inflammation of the cellular membrane, which surrounds all abscesses, and limits their extent, must have formed.

formed a barrier impenetrable by the air, as it rushed out of the lungs into this cavity; and of course the whole of what was thrown into the cavity of the abscess at each expiration, would be drawn back again into the lungs, at the next inspiration, and thus the surrounding parts might escape tumefaction: and this passing and repassing of the air will fully account for the noise, which the patient complained of.



II. *Account of a Locked Jaw.* By AARON DEXTER,

M. D. F. A. A.

*Boston, January 26th, 1790.*

SIR,

I BEG leave to present to the Academy, a particular history of the unfortunate case of my friend, Dr. Edward Wyer. It rarely happens, that the particular circumstances attending the disease, with the full effect of applications, and a constant variation of practice, as symptoms appeared, can be attended to as was the case in this instance: owing to his having no other nurses than such physicians, with his own assistance, as were able to change the mode according to appearances.

I presume, it may give some information to medical gentlemen, who have not had an opportunity of being witnesses to such distressing scenes.

I am, with the greatest respect,

your most obedient servant,

A. DEXTER.

*The Hon. JAMES BOWDOIN Esq.* }  
*President of the A. A. S.* }

*An Accurate History of a Locked Jaw, from a wounded Membrane, that terminated fatally.*

*August 25th, 1789.*

EDWARD WYER, a gentleman of the medical profession, trod upon a shingle nail, which passed through his shoe, into the ball of his left foot, directly over the tendon leading to the second toe. A few drops of blood followed. He applied only a little petroleum to the part.

The next day, a slight lameness ensued, with nausea at the stomach. The third day, it was apparently well; and he attended his usual business without any regard to his foot.

Sunday, September 7th, whilst at dinner, he observed some difficulty in swallowing. Monday 8th, he perceived a considerable stiffness in the muscles of his neck. On Tuesday the 9th, it increased, but not so much as to prevent his riding ten miles in the afternoon: and he concluded, he was attacked with the mumps. He applied, in the evening, vol. linament to his neck and jaws. During the night, he was restless; and after sleeping, repeatedly found, that he had bit his tongue.

Wednesday morning the 10th, he perceived a stiffness in his back, as though he had been sleeping on a board; and could scarcely open his mouth. Upon his attempting to speak, or swallow, spasms seized his throat. At this time, he was fully convinced, that he had a locked jaw: and the affair of the nail was recollected, with all its circumstances.

During the forenoon, his disorder increased rapidly. At 12 o'clock, a medical friend called on him by accident, he made an effort to speak, but could not for some minutes.

As

As soon as he was able, he related his case, and asked advice. They conversed on the several different remedies that have been recommended. Opium he conceived of no avail: he said, that he had made patients under his care, eat it by the pound. The warm bath was mentioned; but he objected. He agreed, that a cold bath was the only thing that could save him. Mercurial frictions were mentioned; but he would not consent; and answered, that he had often tried them without any sort of advantage. He then recited the cases in the 6th vol. of the London Medical Observations, proving the good effects of cold water; and, at the same time, produced his own minutes of a case of a locked jaw, cured apparently by cold bathing; which took place about twelve months before in a neighbouring town.

On examining his foot, nothing was perceived but a very slight speck where the nail entered. There was no soreness, tenderness, or pain in that part, more than in any other. It was agreed to apply the cold bath immediately. He placed himself on a low stool, naked; and two buckets of cold water were thrown on his head: after which, he placed himself between two blankets on his bed. An agreeable warmth soon took place; and he expressed relief, from the application, particularly at his stomach; and could swallow better.

The first application was about 1 o'clock, in the afternoon; and repeated exactly in the same manner, four times.

At 6 o'clock, he was evidently relieved. After the fourth bath, he rose from the stool, with great satisfaction; could speak with ease; and drink without difficulty. During the five hours, he took liberally of broth and gruel. The fifth

A a bath

bath had a very different effect : it produced a tremor, and great anxiety. Spasms attacked him more violently than ever, particularly on the back of his neck ; which was embrocated with oil of cloves, diluted with spirits of wine. The spasms were very violent also in the muscles of his jaws. To prevent his mouth closing completely, which he apprehended, he had introduced a stick between his teeth ; and this was of great importance to him, during his life. At this time his foot was examined ; and the speck taken out ; which did not shew any trace of the nail under the scarf skin. A blister, as strong as could be made, was applied to the part : but he was utterly averse to having the tendon examined ; conceiving it too late to make any application to the part originally affected, as the disease had become general.

He wished to have the system supported with wine, bark, and nourishment.

The bath of cold water was tried again, at 8 o'clock ; but it evidently increased his disorder ; and from that time, he would never consent to its application.

During the night, several enemata were administered, of a strong decoction of red bark, and snake root. At his usual bed time, an anodyne of two grains of opium was given him : he passed a very restless night. He soon found, that cold drinks produced less spasm than warm ; which led him to take every thing that he was able to swallow, cold.

Thursday 11th, it was proposed to him, to pass a seton, covered with cantharides, under the skin of the affected part. To this he consented, with a design to inflame the part : but it produced no good effects ; it seemed rather to increase his irritability. In the course of the day, three enemata were administered of a decoction of bark, as before.

He

He had a great aversion to bark in any form, received into his stomach ; as it generally, in health, produced nausea. The object of this application was to give tone to the stomach, presuming that debility was the immediate effect of the disease.

The gentlemen of the medical profession, who were present, suggested to him the use of the warm bath ; as every other application had proved of little effect : to this he consented. About 4 o'clock, in the afternoon, he was placed in a bathing machine, with water heated to 90° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, in which he remained seventeen minutes. It produced a good effect, in relaxing the muscles in general, particularly of his body and arms. Growing faint, he was taken out ; covered with flannel ; and put on his bed. A most profuse diaphoresis ensued ; and he felt so much relieved, that he said, he then had a secret hope that he should recover : but, within an hour, on attempting to drink some lemonade, his spasms returned as violently as before, and more general ; but seemed to remit at shorter periods.

At 8 o'clock, he was anxious to try the warm bath again ; and was placed in it as soon as possible, but without any good effect. He could bear it but a few minutes, before he became faint ; and spasms attacked him in this situation. He passed a better night than he expected ; and obtained some sleep, by keeping his head accurately balanced.

Friday 12th. This morning he seemed better ; his spasms were not so violent ; and he was much encouraged. A laxative enema was administered ; as nothing had passed his bowels since Wednesday morning. In the afternoon, spasms returned more violent than ever, and more general. The

warm

warm bath was again used, but without procuring any relief: and he passed a very distressing night.

Saturday 12th, a cathartick of calomel was proposed, which met his approbation. It is to be observed that he now preserved his reason entirely; and was unfortunately able to judge for himself of his situation, and the full effect of every application. He had, from the first moment, considered his case out of the reach of medical assistance.

This morning, electricity was proposed, which he approved. And such sparks were drawn as he was able to bear, without producing spasms, from the parts most affected. The electrick fluid was passed through him in various directions, for about one hour. He thought himself calmer in consequence of the application; and passed the day without violent spasms. Electricity was repeated in the evening, but without any apparent effect. His sensibility had much increased since Thursday night. Constant attention was necessary from the physician, to keep the muscles exactly balanced.

In the evening, it was agreed to make use of mercurial frictions; as there had been some similar cases related, in which this application had succeeded. It was used through the night very freely. A laxative enema was also administered without effect. His thirst was very great. From 9 o'clock in the evening, to 6 o'clock the next morning, he drank five pints of cold water, and as much lemonade.

Sunday 13th. A discharge from his bowels was produced; but was not considered as sufficient. And ten grains of calomel were given him, with one hundred drops of laudanum. He passed a tolerable day without any violent spasms; took but little food, as his stomach nauseated it; but drank cold water and lemonade in large quantities. At 4 o'clock  
in

in the afternoon, an enema was administered of broth and half an ounce of laudanum. It was agreed to omit the mercurial frictions ; and keep him as quiet as possible ; and to give him as much food as could be retained on his stomach, or by his bowels. The laudanum soon had an effect. At 5 o'clock, he lay quietly sleeping under its influence. Appearances were favourable at this time, in the opinion of all the medical gentlemen present. He continued quiet, and slept easy till ten o'clock ; when a laborious respiration took place. An attempt to awake him was made without effect ; and the difficulty seemed to increase very fast. He was then raised up in his bed ; and carried to a chair, without any signs of life, except an interrupted catching for breath, and a very feeble pulse. The most stimulating volatiles were applied to his mouth, nose, temples, &c. without any effect. At 11 o'clock, his respiration was scarcely perceptible ; and his pulse intermitted. He was laid on his bed as a dead man. In a few minutes, his pulse seemed more connected. He was raised up on the side of the bed ; and all the windows were opened ; and an enema was administered of a solution of cathartick salts in strong peppermint water ; which, in a few minutes, operated very largely ; and part of the laudanum was evacuated. His respiration gradually recovered ; and his pulse rose full. These circumstances induced his medical attendants to repeat the enema as before ; at half past 12 o'clock, he was again placed in his bed, and breathed tolerably easy ; and had a copious involuntary discharge. The external stimulating applications were continued ; and his spasms returned in a slight degree, just sufficient to lock his jaws during their continuance. Every muscle had been perfectly relaxed since

since 10 o'clock. His respiration grew gradually better; and at 3 o'clock, he was able to speak; and found to his great surprise, the muscles of his jaws relaxed, and as free from spasm as he ever was. His thirst was violent: he drank from 3 o'clock to half past 5, one quart of cold water, two quarts of lemonade, and a bottle of spruce beer. After this he slept quietly half an hour. There seemed to be a singular alteration, and he was very much elated; and fully believed, that a complete crisis had taken place. He continued free from any spasm, particularly in his jaws and neck, till seven o'clock in the morning.

Monday 14th. At 8 o'clock his left leg and thigh were extremely affected with spasms. The violence and pain of them were so great, that during three hours, he was, for the first time, deprived of his reason. At the intervals he begged for an enema of laudanum, as the only thing that could save him from the severest torture. Electricity was first tried on the part, but without any effect. Afterwards, an enema was given with one hundred drops of laudanum. The spasms on the abdominal muscles forced it from him immediately. His sensibility was so extremely increased, that opening a door, walking in his room, or speaking louder than a whisper, would produce spasms too distressing for language to express. Soon after the glister came from him, he had several free discharges; and a diarrhœa took place, which lasted through the day. In the evening, a julap of oil of cinnamon, and thirty drops of laudanum was given, which checked the discharges; but he passed a very restless night. Towards morning his spasms relaxed, and he slept a little.

Tuesday 15th. This morning he seemed tolerably easy. At 12 o'clock, a spasm seized his diaphragm and lungs.

Extreme

Extreme difficulty of respiration came on. And he appeared to sink under his complaints ; took his leave of his family ; and made several arrangements respecting his property, and his funeral, with great composure : satisfied that, from the parts attacked, it was impossible for him to live but a few hours. Vescicating tincture of cantharides was applied on his breast ; and a tea spoonful of Hoffman's anodyne mineral water was given him, without any effect. When life seemed just quitting him, a large discharge of flatus from the intestines, followed by a fetid discharge of excrement, gave immediate relief. An enema of a solution of cathartick salts was administered ; which gave him two discharges. He seemed totally disappointed in being thus relieved ; and considered it as a singular medical change.

At 7 o'clock in the evening, he took a large spoonful of Huxham's tincture of bark, with two spoonsful of wine ; which proved very grateful. His pulse was very feeble, but his spasms seemed to have left him altogether. It was agreed, that he should repeat the last mentioned medicine every hour. He asked for cold cider, which he found very grateful to his taste. At 8 o'clock, he repeated the tincture of bark and wine ; and asked to be turned in his bed, which was immediately done. He perceived a spasm, and called for a pillow to raise his head a little ; which being placed agreeably to his wish, he stretched himself out during the spasm ; and his respiration and pulse ceased instantly, without the least emotion. The medical gentlemen, who constantly attended him, supposed that a spasm seized his heart, which deprived him of life.

Wednesday

Wednesday morning. As it had been invariably his request, that, after his death, his foot might be examined, his family consented. The skin and cellular membrane were removed; and the nail could be traced to the sheath of the tendon, which was found to have been perforated; it did not enter the tendon; but passed by the side of it to the periosteum of the bone, which it had not affected.

Under the tendon was a small cavity, about the size of a pea, discoloured throughout, with evident marks of previous inflammation.

The phalanx of the toe was taken of; but no further discovery was made. From Wednesday, the 10th of September to his death, he never was without some medical friend in his chamber. And from Friday morning, he had two, and frequently three or four with him. His situation was such, that without some person well acquainted with the profession, his distress must have been exceedingly increased.

MEMOIRS  
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L.H.



## C O N T E N T S.

*AN Eulogy on General GEORGE WASHINGTON ; pronounced before the Academy, February 19, 1800. By JOHN DAVIS, Recording Secretary of the Academy.*

### ASTRONOMICAL AND MATHEMATICAL PAPERS.

	Page.
<i>New Method of Working a Lunar Observation. By NATHANIEL BOWDITCH, A.A.S.</i>	1
<i>Astronomical Problem. Having the times when a circumpolar star passed the thread of a telescope, above and below the pole, to determine the azimuth of the telescope, and the times when the star passed the meridian. By THEOPHILUS PARSONS, Esq. A.A.S.</i>	12
<i>Remarks on an Eclipse of the Moon seen at Jerusalem, not long before the death of Herod, and mentioned by Josephus. By JAMES WINTHROP, Esq. A. A. S.</i>	20
<i>Description of a new invented Steelyard, By BENJAMIN DEARBORN, F.A.A</i>	23
<i>A method of finding the Area of a field arithmetically. By ELIZUR WRIGHT, A. M.</i>	25
<i>Remarks on Mr. Winthrop's paper on the duplication of the Cube in part 1st of this volume. By GEORGE BARON, late Master of the Mathematical Academy at South Shields, in the county of Durham, in England,</i>	40
<i>Mr. JOSEPH POPE's description of an Orrery of his construction,</i>	43

PHYSICAL

## PHYSICAL PAPERS.

	Page.
<i>Description of four remarkable Fishes, taken near the Piscataqua in New Hampshire. By WILLIAM D. PECK, Esq. A. A. S.</i>	46
<i>On Meteorological Observations and Bills of Mortality, in a letter from EDWARD A. HOLYOKE, M.D. A. A. S. to the late EDWARD WIGGLESWORTH, D.D. A. A. S.</i>	58
<i>Synopsis of several Bills of Mortality. By Rev. JOSEPH M'KEAN, A. A. S. President of Bowdoin College,</i>	62
<i>Deductions from select Bills of Mortality. By Rev. JOSEPH M'KEAN, A. A. S. President of Bowdoin College,</i>	66
<i>Account of a Water Spout, in Watuppa Pond, at Freetown, in a Letter from NEHEMIAH BENNET, Esq. to Hon. JOHN DAVIS, Esq.</i>	70
<i>An account of some of the mineral productions in the State of New York, (accompanying Specimens transmitted for the Cabinet of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences,) in a Letter from BENJAMIN DE WITT, M.D. Sec. N. Y. Soc. Agric. Arts and Manufact. F. A. A. F. H. S. &amp;c. to ELIPHALET PEARSON, L. L. D. Corresponding Secretary of the Academy,</i>	73
<i>An account of the deleterious effects of Mephitic Air, or marsh miasmata, experienced by three men, July 27, 1797. In a well, on the Boston pier; in a letter to the Rev. JOSEPH WILLARD, President of the university in Cambridge, and Vice President of the American Academy of Arts</i>	Arts

# CONTENTS.

<i>Arts and Sciences.</i> By Rev. JOHN LATHROP, D.D. A.A.S.	Page 81
<i>Fatal effects of Lightning ; in a letter to the Rev. JOSEPH WILLARD, President of the university in Cambridge, and Vice President of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.</i> By Rev. JOHN LATHROP, D.D. A.A.S.	85
<i>An account of the effects of Lightning on the house of JONATHAN MASON, Esq. in Boston. In a letter to the Rev. JOSEPH WILLARD, D.D. L.L.D. and Vice President of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.</i> By Rev. JOHN LATHROP, D.D.	91
<i>Observations on Electricity, and an improved mode of constructing Lightning Rods. In a letter from the Hon. LOAMMI BALDWIN, F.A.A. to the Rev. JOSEPH WILLARD, D.D. L.L.D. Vice President of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences,</i>	96
<i>Remarks on the Hon. LOAMMI BALDWIN's proposed improvement in Lightning Rods, in a letter from AARON PUTNAM, Esq. to the Rev. JEDIDIAH MORSE, D.D. F.A.A.</i>	99
<i>Remarks on a Natural Phosphorus.</i> By Doctor SOLOMON DROWN,	104
<i>Observations upon the art of extracting Marine Salt from sea water, by evaporation, produced by the sun's heat ; with a description of the works, and the several processes used in preparing Medicinal Salts, and Magnesia Alba.</i> By JAMES THACHER, M.D. F.A.A.	107
	Process

<i>Process for making Cider, communicated in a letter from</i>	<i>Page.</i>
<i>RICHARD PLATT, Esq. to Hon. JOHN ADAMS, L.L.D.</i>	
<i>President of the Academy,</i>	121
<i>Account of the resuscitation of a Mouse, found in a torpid</i>	
<i>state, enclosed in a fossil substance. Communicated in a letter</i>	
<i>from OLIVER FISKE, M.D. to Hon. ROBERT T. PAINE,</i>	
<i>A. A. F.</i>	124
<i>Account of an Inscribed Rock, at Dighton, in the Common-</i>	
<i>wealth of Massachusetts, accompanied with a copy of the</i>	
<i>Inscription. By JAMES WINTHROP, Esq.</i>	126

## MEDICAL PAPERS.

<i>An account of the dissection of three Persons, who died of the</i>	
<i>Malignant Epidemic that prevailed in Boston, in the Sum-</i>	
<i>mer of 1798. By ISAAC RAND and JOHN WARREN,</i>	
<i>M.D. F. A. A.</i>	130
<i>On the use of Oil of Tobacco in the cure of Cancers; in a let-</i>	
<i>ter from Rev. ZEPHANIAH WILLIS, of Kingston, to</i>	
<i>Rev. JOSEPH WILLARD, D.D. L.L.D. F. A. A.</i>	137

## APPENDIX.

<i>Count RUMFORD's Donation,</i>	140
<i>Vote of thanks to Count RUMFORD,</i>	143
<i>Donations made to the American Academy of Arts and Sci-</i>	
<i>ences, since the publication of the first volume of their Me-</i>	
<i>moirs,</i>	145
<i>List of the Members of the American Academy of Arts and</i>	
<i>Sciences,</i>	162

## ERRATA.

## ERRATA.

- Page 1, Line 11, for *Dantherne* read *Duntherne*.  
 — 3, — 7, for *Star's* read *Sun's*  
 — 6, — 2, for *Ss* read *Sr*.  
 — 7, — 2, Divide the first number of the equation by 2, and  
     for *Sr* read *sr*.  
 — — 5, for  $\div \log. 2$ , read  $— \log. 2$ .  
 — — 17, for *cosec Zs*, read *sine Zs*.  
 — 32, — 2, of the Example, for  $69^{\circ} 43'$ , read  $69^{\circ} 43'$ .  
 — 80, — 24, for "*fountains of deep*" read "*fountains of the deep*."  
 Plate 1, Fig. 7, join *P. D*.

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Obs. The "New method of working a Lunar Observation," published in the following Memoirs, was written several years ago, and before the publication of the transactions of the Royal Society for 1797, in which is inserted a method somewhat similar, invented by Mr. Mendoza y Rios. An appendix to the "New Practical Navigator," has lately been published, in which the corrections are all additive and the work is shorter.

MEMOIRS

EXPLANATION

Table with 2 columns: Page, and Description. The text is mirrored and difficult to read, but appears to be a list of items or figures.

The "New method of working a linear observation" published in the following Memoirs, was written several years ago, and before the publication of the transactions of the Royal Society. It is a method which is now being applied to what is called the "New method of working a linear observation" by Mr. Blandford & R. H. Blandford. The method is now being applied to the "New method of working a linear observation" by Mr. Blandford & R. H. Blandford. The method is now being applied to the "New method of working a linear observation" by Mr. Blandford & R. H. Blandford.

GENERAL GEORGE WASHINGTON

MEMOIRS

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A N  
EULOGY,  
O N  
GENERAL GEORGE WASHINGTON.

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QUÆ CUM MAGNA MODIS MULTIS MIRANDA VIDETUR  
GENTIBUS HUMANIS REGIO, VISENDQUE FERTUR,  
REBUS OPIMA BONIS, MULTA MUNITA VIRUM VI:  
NIL TAMEN HOC HABUISSE VIRO PRÆCLARIUS IN SE,  
NEC SANCTUM MAGIS, ET MIRUM, CARUMQUE VIDETUR.

LUCRETIVS.

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AN  
EULOGY,  
ON  
GENERAL GEORGE WASHINGTON,  
PRONOUNCED AT BOSTON,  
ON WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY XIX, MDCCC.  
BEFORE THE  
American Academy of Arts and Sciences,  
*BY THEIR APPOINTMENT, AND PUBLISHED AT THEIR REQUEST.*

By JOHN DAVIS,  
MEMBER OF THE ACADEMY, AND OF THE  
MASSACHUSETTS HISTORICAL SOCIETY.



BOSTON—{PRINTED BY W. SPOTSWOOD}—MDCCC.

OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY OF THE ARMY

WASHINGTON, D. C.

1914

GENERAL ORDER NO. 10

OF THE SECRETARY OF THE ARMY

WASHINGTON, D. C.

1914

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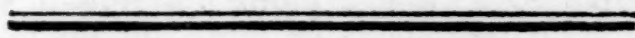
WASHINGTON, D. C.

1914

Wash. No. 5 Feb. '03.



A N  
E U L O G Y,  
O N  
GENERAL GEORGE WASHINGTON.



I N common instances of mortality, when a Father or a Friend returns to dust, we do not take our final adieu, though the funeral rites be accomplished. Grief first admits, then invites consolation, from conversing on the lives of the deceased: a recapitulation of their virtues and of their meritorious actions is like Ossian's music, at once, "pleasant and mournful to the soul."

W H E N the Father of his Country; when a Nation's Friend descends to the Grave, it is fit that public commemorations should mingle with private condolence: that

6 EULOGY ON GENERAL WASHINGTON.

we should frequently recal to view his revered image, and repeat our votive honors to him, who was never weary in contributing to our happiness.

WITH such impressions, my literary Fathers and Friends, you have appointed this solemn meeting: with such impressions only, could I prevail upon myself to attempt the task, which it has been your pleasure to assign to me.

DEATH has frequently taken a distinguished victim from the circle of your association. You have mourned the loss of the venerable BOWDOIN, your revered president, your liberal patron, the friend and promoter of all that was excellent and pure: the public spirited, the munificent HANCOCK: the classical, eloquent COOPER: CLARKE, in whom shone forth all the Beauties of Holiness, whose pious lips were "wet with Castalian Dews:" BELKNAP, learned, devout, and unaffected, worthy of being the biographer of *WASHINGTON*: SUMNER, the cherished Ornament of the Commonwealth: to these, and many more of your beloved and respected associates you have bidden a sad farewell: they are removed from your pleasant meetings to the cold and silent mansions of the Grave. This day you lament the loss of one, who was not indeed an attendant at your literary interviews; but who was still most dear: whose benign and happy influences travelled to their object, unimpeded by distance, like the mild and steady beams of planetary light.

"THOU sleepest the sleep of Death, but we are not unmindful of thee *O! Achilles*: in life and in death, thou art equally the object of our regard and veneration."

EULOGY ON GENERAL WASHINGTON. 7

Thus sang the Grecian Bard, to sooth the shade of a Hero: with like affectionate reverence, with pious sensibilities, do we cherish thy memory, departed *WASHINGTON*, and pay repeated visits to thy Tomb.

IN contemplating a life, whose maturer portion was so singularly splendid, we are naturally prompted to look back to its commencement. Corresponding to that consistency of character, by which he was distinguished, marks of superiority are imprinted on the very threshold of his days.

IN the early dawn of manhood, delicate and important public duties were committed to his charge. Then appeared some of those heroic virtues, that presaged his future greatness. Unshaken fortitude, firm perseverance, and sound discretion. Behold the intrepid messenger pursuing his weary way through a pathless wilderness. The assaults of the savage do not intimidate him: the severities of winter do not arrest his progress. He returns in safety and in honor: though Gallic artifice strewed his way with thorns: though the waters of the Allegany had well nigh extinguished his valued life, when their impetuous current rolled over his youthful head.\* Illustrious Man, then, as in all thy life, the conscious satisfaction resulting from a faithful discharge of duty, was thy sufficient, thy best reward: but how might it have cheered thy exalted spirit to have known, that far beyond the limits of thy long and arduous journey should extend an

\* See his JOURNAL, published in the Massachusetts Magazine, 1789.

8 EULOGY ON GENERAL WASHINGTON.

Empire, which should acknowledge thee, as the most distinguished instrument of its establishment.

THE same memorable ground next becomes the theatre of his military achievements; and at the early age of twenty-seven, he has attracted the admiration of his Country and retired to his beloved residence, with public testimonials of their approbation and regard.

AGRICULTURAL employments, domestic endearments, and the discharge of civic trusts dignify and adorn the next fifteen years of his interesting life. But not these alone. In that calm interval, when common minds might have been corrupted by indulgence, or benumbed with satiety, the superior mind of *WASHINGTON* was improving under the wholesome regimen of systematic discipline. Faithful to the high obligations of truth and duty, faithful to himself, he studied the various relations, that bind the man and the citizen, and, in the shade of peace and retirement, prescribed to himself those rules and maxims of conduct, on which was reared the lofty edifice of his fame.

WITH correct and extensive views of the rights and interests of his country; with lively sensibilities, when they were invaded or endangered, he had a just title to the high honor of convening with that illustrious band of patriots and civilians, who composed the first national Council of United America. By that Council, faithful and intelligent, deeply impressed with the mighty interests intrusted to their care, and well apprized that the fate of their Country depended on their choice, he is unanimously appointed to command the feeble armies of an oppressed

people, against the veteran arms of the first European power. He suffers himself to be advanced to that "painful pre-eminence," though his strong and comprehensive mind could not have been unmindful of the vast "sea of troubles," on which he was embarking.

WITH a less correct sense of public duty, he might have urged many claims to avoid the ponderous task; and in a dubious contest, multitudes from political opinion, and many, from an indulgent regard to an opulent and distinguished citizen, would have dignified the cautious decision, with the name of wisdom. He listens to no such unworthy suggestion. He takes counsel with himself—He obeys the call of his Country—He hastens to the scene of action; and at no period, perhaps, does his conduct appear more elevated and interesting, than at that impressive moment, when he placed himself at the head of his applauded band of *undisciplined husbandmen*, on yonder classic plains.

THE purity and magnanimity, manifested by the acceptance of that arduous trust, taught his admiring country to expect, with firm reliance, that, with those hopeful pledges, were associated all the protecting train of martial and of manly virtues.

THOSE animating hopes were completely realized. Modelled by his great example, the camp became a school of virtue, as well as of military science. There were seen unshaken fidelity; unfulfilled honor; humane and social sympathies; pure love of country; respect for the magistracy, and reverence for the laws. He sustained

the standard of American Liberty with energies suited to her character: tempering authority with mildness, bravery with discretion.—Intrepid in danger, clement in victory, undismayed by disaster, he bore the precious deposit through a long and perilous conflict, animated by the applauses of a grateful country and the admiration of the World.

THE eventful occurrences, that developed his talents and his virtues, are too deeply impressed upon the memory of those whom I address, to require a repetition. They were strongly associated with all you held most dear. Revolving years, life's multiplied concerns, a long and happy participation of succeeding peace and prosperity, have not effaced them from your remembrance. And ye, ingenuous Youth, whose existence commenced in the AGE of *WASHINGTON*, who have seen only his setting sun, in the mirror of history you will behold the bright reflection of his meridian beams. You will learn of your revered sires, how they were animated by their benign and cheering influence. Ask of those who bare you: they will tell you, how his guardian form dispelled distressing terrors, and protected by his arm, with what calm complacence they watched your infant slumbers.

THE elevated sentiments and the expanded views, which inspired the mind of every active citizen, during the memorable contest for Liberty and Independence, were not satisfied with the firm pursuit, or the assured prospect of those interesting objects. During a struggle for political existence, you studied the liberal embellishments of a state, and like *PLINY* on *Vesuvius*, attended to the

pursuits of Science, undismayed by the thunder and the storm, by which you were assailed. This literary establishment was a child of the revolution. Europe beheld it with admiration. The friends of America contemplated it with delight. They considered it as affording renewed evidence, that you were resolved on the attainment of Freedom, and were worthy of its enjoyment.

THE illustrious Man, whose loss we now deplore, was among the first of your elected associates. It was a time of multiplied calamities. The military operations of the enemy were to be opposed in five different states of the union. A mind occupied with such immense concerns, could not be expected to apply itself to the immediate objects of your institution. Yet he accepts your invitation; looking forward, doubtless, to the happier days, when the arts of peace should succeed the horrors of war. As the first among the public characters of the age; as the pride and defence of your country, he was entitled to the earliest and most respectful expressions of your attention: but he was your associate by still more appropriate characters, by dispositions and accomplishments, altogether congenial to the nature and end of your institution.

It is among the declared objects of your inquiry, to examine the various soils of the country, to ascertain their natural growths and the different methods of culture: to promote and encourage agriculture, arts, manufactures and commerce: to cultivate the knowledge of the natural history of the country, and to determine the uses, to which its various productions may be applied.

PURSUITS of this nature always commanded his attention, and to some of them he was peculiarly attached. They were frequently the topic of his conversation, and the subject of his correspondence, with ingenious and public spirited men, in different parts of the world:

WITH a mind well-fitted to acquire just conceptions on any subject, to which his attention was directed, he would, I am persuaded, have been distinguished in the abstruser branches of science, if the course of life, which he had chosen, or to which he was impelled, had not been incompatible with the pursuit. In patient investigation, unwearied assiduity, and systematic arrangement, he was excelled by none. The uniform success, which attended his operations in military and political life, evinces great solidity of judgment: and he, who could produce such correct and prosperous results, in the great affairs of a nation, so liable to be defeated or impeded, by the ever varying humours and prejudices of men, with like application, might have been equally distinguished in the steady regions of science, whose permanent relations and connected truths, never fail to disclose themselves to industrious research and attentive contemplation.

BUT though a man of contemplative habits, he was still more fitted for action. It became necessary for the repose and happiness of his country, that he should leave *the asylum of his declining years*. Obedient to that voice, which he could never hear but with *veneration and love*, he exchanges a retreat which he had chosen with the

*fondest predilection*, for the anxieties and toils of political elevation. How was he honored in the midst of the people, in coming forth from the shades of his retirement. "He was as the morning star in the midst of a cloud; " and as the moon at the full; as the *sun*, shining upon " the temple of the MOST HIGH; and as the rainbow, " giving light in the bright cloud."\*—

THE duties of an employment, which is accepted with reluctance, are frequently discharged with symptoms of weariness or disgust: but he engaged in the multiplied labours of his new and arduous station, as if it were the fond object of his choice; and though enjoying a weight of character, which would peculiarly facilitate his measures, yet he discovered a laudable solicitude, that they should possess an intrinsic propriety, and conducted himself with as much caution and circumspection, as if he were for the first time a candidate for public favour.

THE interesting objects of his care, and their direct and intimate connexion with the solid interest and permanent welfare of his country were indeed congenial to the best wishes of his heart, and fitted to relieve the unavoidable solitudes of his station. To regard with comprehensive and equal eye the great assemblage of communities and interests over which he presided: to settle pure and solid foundations of national policy, consistent with the eternal rules of order and right which Heaven has ordained: to establish public credit: to revive mutual confidence: to introduce with the native tribes on the frontiers, a system, corresponding with the

\* ECCLESIASTICUS.

#### 14 EULOGY ON GENERAL WASHINGTON.

mild principles of religion and philanthropy: to provide for the national security, by suitable military establishments: to found the safety of the United States, on the basis of systematic and solid arrangement: to guard against infractions of the laws of nations: to maintain a friendly intercourse with foreign powers: to exhibit that stability and wisdom in the public counsels, which should be a just ground of public confidence: to adopt measures for the accomplishment of *our* duties to the rest of the world, and create a capacity of exacting from them the discharge of *their duties* towards us: to maintain to the United States their due rank among the nations of the Earth: to vindicate the majesty of the laws, against violence and insurrection: to turn the machinations of the wicked to the confirming of the constitution: to extinguish the causes of external differences, on terms compatible with national rights and national honor: to mingle in the operations of government every degree of moderation and tenderness, which national justice, dignity and safety might permit, and to exemplify the pre-eminence of a free government, by all the attributes, which might win the affections of its citizens and command the respect of the world.\*—These were the momentous pursuits, which occupied his elevated mind, and engaged his warmest affections: for these purposes, he invited the aid and co-operation of the enlightened counsels of the Union; and, in spite of the petulance of opposition, or the effusions of faction, his prosperous

\* See WASHINGTON'S Speeches to Congress, from which the above summary of his presidential pursuits is selected, with little variation from his own impressive language.

country and its grateful inhabitants, will testify that they have been accomplished.

WITH views and occupations, so comprehensive and elevated, he did not lose sight of *Learning* and of the *Arts*. "There is nothing," said he, (in his address to the first congress) "that can better deserve your attentive patronage, than the promotion of Science and Literature. Knowledge is in every country, the surest basis of public happiness. In *one*, in which the measures of government receive their impression so immediately from the sense of the community, it is proportionably essential." To the Trustees and Faculty of the University of Pennsylvania, in reply to their respectful address, he acknowledges himself gratified *in being considered, by the patrons of literature, as one of their number; being fully apprized of the influence which sound learning has on religion and manners, on government, liberty and laws; and expressing his confidence that the same unremitting exertions, which under all the blasting storms of war, caused the arts and sciences to flourish in America, would bring them nearer to maturity, when invigorated by the milder rays of peace.* To the University of Harvard, he communicates *his sincere satisfaction in learning the flourishing state of their literary republic. Unacquainted, he adds, with the expression of sentiments which I do not feel, you will do me justice in believing, confidently, in my disposition to promote the interests of science and true religion.*

His closing address to Congress is enriched with like paternal sentiments; and at a more solemn moment, when completing the last arrangement of his terrestrial

concerns, he makes careful provision for a literary establishment which he had before emphatically recommended; appropriating to the institution of a NATIONAL UNIVERSITY a very liberal donation, which his native state, as an expression of their grateful sense of his services, had placed at his disposal.

THESE expressions of his sentiments and views indicate the character, which he would probably prefer to sustain. Not merely that of a warrior, or statesman; but as the enlightened friend of man, and all his best enjoyments: the advocate of religion: the supporter of virtue: and, to adopt the language of your charter, the cultivator or patron of "every art and science which may tend to advance the interest, dignity and happiness of a free, independent and virtuous people."

THE artist who executed the statue which adorns the capital of Virginia, had just conceptions of the most appropriate character and attitude. Its simple *costume*, is well adapted to designate the founder and defender of American Liberty: the protector of agriculture: the representative of a happy and peaceful nation.\*

IT would require little aid from the imagination, to render the significant emblem of your society an apt memorial of your late illustrious associate. Let MINERVA, with the spear and shield; represent his venerable form. The implements of husbandry, the hill crowned with oaks, and the field of native grain, indicate his favorite employment. The rising city, the instruments of philosophy, the approaching ship, and the sun above the cloud, are lively images of the benign and happy influ-

\* Anecdotes of the Sculptor Houdon. Month. Mag. Sept. 1798.

ence of his life, on commerce and the arts, and the advancing greatness of his country.

WHILE contemplating the character of *WASHINGTON*, in a literary point of view, I must not omit to consider his style. It is distinguished for purity, propriety, and precision; and some of the most correct philologists have pronounced, that most of the qualities of a good style are united in his compositions. In his letters he is plain: in his public addresses elegant: in all he is correct, expressing in a small compass his clear conceptions, without tiresome verbosity, or any parade of ornament. In attending to what has fallen from his pen, the connexion between modes of thinking and writing; between character and composition is apparent. His writings are marked with the strong and pleasing features of sincerity, simplicity and dignity.

It is the complaint of *Livy*, that eulogies, though an useful incitement to great and virtuous actions, tend to corrupt the truth of history. In this regard, I have no apprehensions. I have ascribed no excellencies to the elevated character, which I have attempted to sketch, that you are not witnesses he possessed: but I sensibly feel, how imperfect will be the picture, which I shall have exhibited. With great sincerity, shall I adopt the *suspensive inscription* of the Grecian artists, expressing that they were employed in the execution of such a statue or picture, rather than that they had in any degree finished it\*.

\* *HARRIS'S HERMES.*

AN admired writer, speaking of the casual resemblances of persons and things, observes that in the revolution of ages, the wheels of Fortune, will after a long interval run in the same track. I address myself to men, to whom the transactions of past ages are familiar, who have been accustomed to examine and to estimate the splendid characters that have attracted the attention of the world. Permit me to inquire if you have found the man, who in merit and in fame, in all the genuine ingredients of true glory and solid happiness, can be compared with our lamented CHIEF.

THAT rashness and excess, which tarnish the fame of *Macedonia's Madman* and *the Swede*, appear in many of the heroes of ancient and modern story. Some unworthy propensity, or some unhappy error is perceived amidst all the effulgence of their glory. POMPEY could win the affections of the senate and the people of Rome, by disbanding his victorious armies and reassuming the humble air and deportment of a private citizen: but he could also descend to corrupt the people with money; to employ the vilest citizens to embarrass the magistrates in the execution of their functions, that his interposition might be rendered necessary by commotion: verifying the justice of the remark, that he could not resolve to usurp power, but would have been glad to have had it tendered to him as a gift\*.

THE celebrated reign of the philosophic emperor MARCUS ANTONINUS is clouded by the indiscreet adoption of COMMODUS, and his too great indulgence of the

\* Montesq; Grand. & Decad. &c.

infamous FAUSTINA; by the elevation of her lovers to posts of honor; by decreeing her deification, and requiring the youth of Rome to pay their vows before her altars.

To the first PETER of Russia, the title of GREAT has been more permanent, than in most instances, in which it has been assumed or bestowed: but we are shocked at the recorded instances of his cruelties, and he is quoted by a celebrated theorist,\* to exemplify the existence of public spirit, without the spirit of humanity.

VICTOR AMADEUS, with apparent magnanimity, resigned his crown to his son, and sought the placid enjoyments of privacy and retreat. But his retirement became irksome to him: he languished for the re-enjoyment of power, caballed against his son and ended his days in a prison.

A LOUIS XIV. and a FREDERIC, with all the splendor of their lives, died without exciting any regrets: and a MARLBOROUGH, famed for his consummate prudence, as well as for his military achievements, was accused of the meanness of avarice, and of protracting a sanguinary war for the enlargement of property and power.

IF I were to select the character, among the great men of antiquity, exhibiting the nearest resemblance to WASHINGTON, it would be TIMOLEON; memorable for the defence and deliverance of *Sicily*, from external and internal foes; for the establishment of civility and order; and for the quiet enjoyment, to a revered

\* ADAM SMITH'S THEORY OF MORAL SENTIMENTS.

and honorable old age, of the rewards of his virtuous labors, in the bosom of a grateful people. To that degree did he enjoy the affection of the Sicilians, says his biographer, that no war seemed concluded, no laws enacted, no political regulation made in a proper manner, unless revised and touched by him. He was the master-builder who put the last hand to the work, and bestowed upon it a happy elegance and perfection; though at that time Greece boasted a number of great men, whose achievements were highly distinguished. TIMOTHEUS, AGESILAUS, PELOPIDAS and EPAMINONDAS, (the last of whom TIMOLEON principally vied with in the race of glory) yet in this they differ from TIMOLEON, that we discover in their actions a certain labor and effort which diminishes their lustre, and some of them afforded room for censure, and were followed by repentance or remorse.

His trophies cost his fellow citizens no tears, nor put any of them in mourning; and yet, in less than eight years he delivered SICILY from its intestine miseries and distempers, and restored it to the native inhabitants. His military labors finished, he returned to SYRACUSE, and laid down his command; excusing himself to the people from any further service, as he had brought their affairs to a happy conclusion. His old age was cherished, as that of a common father. He died of a slight illness, co-operating with length of years. His funeral was attended by many thousands of men and women, crowned with garlands, and clothed in white. The lamentations mingled with the praises of the deceased, evinced that

the honors paid him was not a matter of course, or in compliance with a duty enjoined, but the testimony of real sorrow and sincere affection\*.

In this description, the analogy, which I have suggested is apparent. In other particulars, there is no resemblance. *TIMOLEON* was a foreigner in *SICILY*. *WASHINGTON* had the supreme satisfaction of imbibing and displaying all his virtues and talents, in his own beloved country. As if to exemplify his own sage reflections upon the inexpediency of foreign education and accomplishments for an American citizen, he like

“ The tall mast that bears our Flag on high, .

“ Grew in OUR SOIL and ripen'd in OUR SKY.”†

*TIMOLEON* was long wretched, if not guilty in the death of his brother, and was a prey to sorrow and remorse for the space of twenty years. No baleful domestic occurrence darkened the days of *WASHINGTON*. Troubles and anxieties, inseparable from the cup of life, doubtless assailed him; but those he sustained with dignity and equanimity.

*TIMOLEON* was censurable in causing the condemnation and the death of the wife and daughter of *ICETAS*.

THE tender sympathies of humanity were always cherished in the breast of *WASHINGTON*; and in a war peculiarly tending to kindle and inflame the human passions, he is chargeable with no instance of cruelty or revenge.

\* PLUTARCH'S LIFE OF TIMOLEON.

† J. ALLEN'S POEMS.

TIMOLEON was blind and helpless in his old age, and the respect with which he was regarded was mingled with pity; reminding us of LUCAN's image of an aged tree, casting a shade only by its trunk. The declining years of WASHINGTON were without apparent decay. He seemed like the mountain oak; and to the last, we looked for shelter beneath its branches, against the impending storm.

IN studying the character of WASHINGTON, we cannot refrain inquiring, by what principles or motives he was thus uniformly swayed to the practice of virtue and the steady pursuit of excellence. Much doubtless was due to his habitual respect for the approbation and esteem of his fellow citizens: and in attributing the formation of his character and fame, in any degree, to this source, we pay a just tribute to his countrymen, a tribute, which he was ever prompt to bestow. It was owing to their *steady and strenuous support*, he acknowledges, that he did not *sink under the oppression* which occasionally assailed him. "Posterity," said he, "will regard with admiration "and gratitude the patience, perseverance, and valor, "which achieved our revolution: they will cherish the "remembrance of virtues, which had but few parallels "in former times, and which will add new lustre to the "most splendid pages of history\*."—On such expressions, he appears to dwell with delight. Thus did PYRRHUS acknowledge his obligations to the EPIROTS, when honored by them with the name of the EAGLE. *If I am an EAGLE,*

\* ANSWER to the PEOPLE of SOUTH CAROLINA, 1790.

said he, *it is upon your arms—upon your wings that I have risen.*

To this motive was added that delicate and refined MORAL SENSE, which is the guardian and protectress of all the virtues: which forbids committing any thing base or unworthy; any thing unbecoming the dignity of man, a due reverence for himself, and the rank he holds in the scale of rational beings.

BUT above all, he was influenced by the more permanent and operative principle of Religion: by the firm and active persuasion of an *ALL-SEEING, ALL-POWERFUL DEITY*: by the high consciousness of future accountability and the assured hope and prospect of Immortality. Contrasting his sublime example, founded on such a basis, with the tribe of infidel heroes, who have lately appeared on the bloody theatre of EUROPE, we cannot but apply the impressive language of a sober and intelligent heathen. "Earthquakes, lightning, storms and torrents have an amazing power: but as for JUSTICE nothing participates of THAT, without thinking and reasoning upon GOD."

SOUND science will ever be found promotive of rational religion and the solid interests of the Commonwealth: but there is a *leprosy of false knowledge*, which is akin to impiety, and saps the compacted fabric of social order. It is thus in the political system. The mild and lovely form of *TRUE LIBERTY*, is opposed by a harlot blustering counterfeit.

It is the pride of this Society, it is the glory and felicity of the Nation, to have at their head A MAN, to

whom the knowledge and the practice of the GOOD and the TRUE are perfectly familiar: whom no false theories can delude, no deceptive inticements seduce, no demons of mischief dismay.

UNDER such auspices, you will walk safely and successfully: preferring the sober paths of practicable good to the brilliant allurements of seductive unsubstantial novelties: adhering to old and approved truths, while indulging in new inquiries: solicitous for improvement, but still retaining a just reverence for the approved maxims of ancient prudence. Let us hope that the casual abuses of Science, or the exentricities of some of its professors, will not impede its cultivation and encouragement. False philosophy is indeed the deceitful DELILAH, which will enervate and corrupt the strongest establishments and deliver them nerveless, and resistless, to the *Philistines of Infidelity*, the Lords of Anarchy and Misrule: but sound Science, with rational Religion, will be the firm supporters of the Magistracy to the latest time; as AARON and HUR sustained the hand of MOSES, *until the going down of the sun.*

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# MEMOIRS, &c.

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## PART II.

### ASTRONOMICAL AND MATHEMATICAL PAPERS.

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*New Method of Working a LUNAR OBSERVATION,*  
by NATHANIEL BOWDITCH, A.A.S.

VARIOUS methods have been proposed for calculating the correct distance of the sun or star from the moon, their apparent distance and altitudes being given: The easiest manner is by Shepard's Parallatic Tables; but, as they cannot easily be procured, it is more common to calculate them by Lyon's, Witchel's, Danthorne's, or Croswell's methods. The chief advantage of the two last is, that there is no difference of cases; but the logarithms must be obtained to great exactness, to six places of figures, by proportioning for the odd seconds. Lyon's and Witchel's methods do not labour under these disadvantages, as the logarithms need be taken to only four places of figures, and it is sufficiently exact to take them to the nearest minute; but there are so many different ways of applying the corrections, particularly in Lyon's method, that learners, in general, find the rules very difficult. To remedy which, the following rule is proposed, which, in a degree, unites the advantages of the former, without labouring under their disadvantages;

tages; it not being necessary to take the logarithms to more than four places of figures, and to the nearest minute; and there is no difference of cases, the corrections being always applied in the same manner, whatever may be the distance and altitudes.

#### R U L E.

From the proportional logarithm of the moon's horizontal parallax, (found in Tab. XIII. Maskelyne's Requisite Tables, or Tab. IX. of tenth edition of Hamilton Moore's Epitome) its index being increased by 10, subtract the log. sine of the moon's zenith distance, and the remainder is the prop. log. of her parallax in altitude; from which, subtracting her refraction, the remainder will be the correction of the moon's altitude.

From the sun's refraction (Tab. I. Req. Tab.) take his parallax (Tab. III. ib.) the remainder will be the correction of the sun's altitude.

The star's refraction (Tab. I. Req. Tab.) is its correction in altitude.

Add together the sun's zenith distance, the moon's zenith distance, and the apparent distance of the sun and moon, and note the half sum of these three numbers.

To the constant logarithm 9.6990 add the cosecant of the half sum and the sine of the apparent distance; the sum, rejecting 20 in the index, will be a reserved logarithm.

To this reserved logarithm, add the sine of the sun's zenith distance, the cosecant of the difference between the moon's zenith distance and the half sum, and the prop. log. of the correction of the sun's altitude ; the sum, rejecting 30 in the index, will be the prop. log. of the first correction.

To the reserved logarithm add the sine of the moon's zenith distance, the cosecant of the difference between the star's zenith distance and the half sum, and the prop. log. of the correction of the moon's altitude ; the sum, rejecting 30 in the index, will be the prop. log. of the second correction.

Then to the apparent distance, add the correction of the moon's altitude, and the first correction, and subtract the sum of the second correction, and the correction of the sun's altitude ; the remainder will be the moon's distance corrected.

Take the difference between the correction of the moon's altitude and the second correction, and with that, enter in the side column of Tab. XIII. (of Req. Tab. or Tab. X. Ham. Moore) and under the corrected distance, take out the corresponding number of seconds, which reserve. Under the same distance, and opposite the correction of the moon's altitude, take out the number of seconds ; the difference between this and the number of seconds above reserved, must be added to the corrected distance, when less than 90 degrees, but subtracted when greater than 90 ; the sum or difference will be the true distance.

The

The rule is the same for a star and the moon, as for the sun and moon, only in the rule, the word star is to be read instead of sun.

## EXAMPLE.

Given apparent central distance of moon and star  $34^{\circ} 25' 42''$ , moon's zenith distance  $27^{\circ} 18'$ , star's zenith distance  $60^{\circ} 14'$ , prop. log. of moon's horizontal parallax 4741: Required the corrected distance.

Prop. log. moon's hor. par.	10.4741	* Zenith distance,	60 14
Sine D zen. dist.	9.6615	D Zenith distance,	27 18
		Apparent distance,	34 26
Prop. log. D corr. in par. $27' 42''$	8126		
D Refraction,	0 29		Sum 121 58
Corr. D altitude,	27 13		$\frac{1}{2}$ Sum 60 59
* Refraction or correction,	1' 39"	$\frac{1}{2}$ Sum — D zenith distance,	33 41
		$\frac{1}{2}$ Sum — * zenith distance,	0 45
Constant logarithm,	9.6990		
$\frac{1}{2}$ Sum, 60 59 Cofecant,	10.0583		
Appar. dist. 34 26 Sine,	9.7524		
Reserved logarithm	9.5097		9.5097
* Zen. dist. 60 14 Sine,	9.9385	D Zen. dist. 27 18 Sine,	9.6615
$\frac{1}{2}$ Sum — D zen. dist. 33 41 Cofec.	10.2560	$\frac{1}{2}$ Sum — * zen. dist. 0 45 Cofec.	11.8830
Correct. * alt. 1' 39" Pro. log.	2.0378	Correct. D alt. 27' 13" Pro. log.	0.8204
1st Correction, 3' 16" Pro. log.	1.7420	2d Correction, 2' 24" Pro. log.	1.8746
Apparent distance,	34 25 42		
Add { Correct. D alt.	27 13		
1st Correction,	3 16		
	34 56 11		
Subtract { Correct. * alt. 1' 39" }	4 3		
2d Correction, 2' 24" }			
	34 52 8		
Add correction from Tab. XIII.	1		
Correct distance,	34 52 9		

The foregoing directions will give the correct distance sufficiently near for any nautical purpose whatever ; but, if the distance were wanted correct to the nearest second, allowance ought to be made for the different temperature of the air, denoted by the Thermometer and Barometer, as it affects the refraction. A fourth correction ought also to be applied, which may be found as follows.

Take the difference between the first correction and the correction of the sun's altitude, which call  $S$ . and the difference between the second correction and the correction of the moon's altitude which call  $M$ . then add together, (1.) Half the sum of the prop. logs. of the sum and difference of the correction of the sun's altitude and correction  $S$ . (2.) Half the sum of the prop. logs. of the sum and difference of the correction of the moon's altitude and correction  $M$ . (3.) The log. sine of the corrected distance. (4.) And the constant logarithm 9.5029. The sum of these four logs. rejecting 20 in the index, will be the prop. log. of this correction, expressed in seconds and thirds ; which, being added to the corrected distance, gives the true distance ; but this correction never amounts to more than a few seconds, and is always neglected.

*Demonstration of the Rule given for working a Lunar Observation.*

LET  $Z$  (Plate I. fig. 1.) be the zenith,  $ZsS$ ,  $ZMm$  be two vertical circles, in which let  $S$  be the true,  $s$  the apparent place of the sun, and  $M$  the true,  $m$  the apparent place of the moon.  $Zs$  and  $Zm$  the apparent, and  $ZS$ ,  $ZM$  the true zenith distances,

tances,  $S M$  and  $s m$  the true and apparent distances respectively. From  $S$  and  $M$  on  $m s$  let fall the perpendiculars  $S s$ ,  $M R$  forming the right angled triangles  $S s r$ ,  $M R m$ , in which the angles at  $s$  and  $m$  are respectively equal to the angles  $Z s m$ ,  $Z m s$ , then  $Rr = ms \mp sr \pm Rm$ , the upper sign being used for the corrections  $s r$ ,  $R m$ , or the lower, according as the angles at  $s$  and  $m$  are respectively greater or less than 90 degrees. It is in finding substitutes for these corrections  $s r$ ,  $R m$  that our method differs from others; for after the value of  $Rr$  is obtained, from Tab. XIII. of Req. Tables, as in Lyon's method, we find the difference between the arches  $r R$  and  $r M$ , which being applied, gives  $r M$ ; afterwards, if you think proper, you may apply our fourth correction, which is equal to the difference between  $M r$  and  $M S$ , and is the same as the fourth correction of Lyon's; and you will have the true distance  $M S$ . These two last corrections, as well as the rule for finding  $S s$  and  $M m$ , being the same, as in Lyon's or Witchel's method, require no new demonstration, but the other part, depending on the corrections  $s r$ ,  $R m$  may be demonstrated in the following manner;

On the center  $C$  describe a semicircle  $B D A$ , (Plate I. fig. 2.) on which take the arc  $B D =$  angle at  $s$ . Join  $A D$ , and from  $C$  on it let fall the perpendicular  $C F$ , then from the similar triangles  $A F C$ ,  $A E D$  we have  $A F (= \frac{1}{2} A D = \text{cosine } \frac{1}{2} \text{ arch } B D) : A C (1) :: A E (= 1 \mp \text{cosine } B D) : A D (= 2 \text{ cosine } \frac{1}{2} \text{ arch } B D)$  in which, as above, the upper sign is to be used, when  $B D$  or the angle  $s$  is more than 90 degrees, and

and the lower when less. Therefore,

$1 \mp \text{cofine angle at } s = \frac{2}{\text{cof. } \frac{1}{2} \text{ angle at } s} = \frac{S s \mp S r}{2 S s}$   
 (because of the right angled triangle  $S r s$ ) and in logarithms,  $2 \times \log. \text{cofine } \frac{1}{2} \text{ angle at } s = \log. S s \mp S r - \log. S s$   
 $\div \log. 2$ : but by common spherics  $2 \log. \text{cofine } \frac{1}{2} \text{ angle } s = \log. \text{cofecant } Z s + \log. \text{cofecant } s m + \log. \text{fine } \frac{1}{2} \text{ sum three}$   
 $\text{fides } Z s, s m, Z m, + \log. \text{fine } \frac{1}{2} \text{ sum three fides} - \text{fide } Z m,$   
 which is therefore  $= \log. S s \mp S r - \log. S s - \log. 2$ ; whence  
 $\log. S s \mp S r = \log. S s + \log. 2 + \log. \text{cofec. } Z s + \log. \text{cofec. } s m + \log. \text{fine } \frac{1}{2} \text{ sum three fides} + \log. \text{fine } \frac{1}{2} \text{ sum} - Z m,$   
 or by using proportional logarithms,  $\text{prop. log. } S s \mp S r = \text{pr. log. } S s - \log. 2$  (or  $+ 9.6990$ )  $- \log. \text{cofec. } Z s$  (or  $+ \log. \text{fine } Z s$ )  $- \log. \text{cofec. } s m$  (or  $+ \log. \text{fine } s m$ )  $- \log. \text{fine } \frac{1}{2} \text{ sum}$   
 or  $(+ \log. \text{cofec. } \frac{1}{2} \text{ sum}) - \log. \text{fine } \frac{1}{2} \text{ sum} - Z m$  (or  $+ \log. \text{cofec. } \frac{1}{2} \text{ sum} - Z m$ ) but our reserved log. is  $= 9.6990 + \text{cofec. } \frac{1}{2} \text{ sum} + \text{fine } s m,$  therefore  $S s \mp S r = \text{reserved log.} + \log. \text{cofec. } Z s + \log. \text{cofec. } \frac{1}{2} \text{ sum} - Z m + \text{prop. log. } S s,$   
 but these numbers are exactly the same as those made use of for finding our first correction; therefore  $S s \mp S r = 1^{\text{st}}$  correction. In the same manner it may be proved, that  $M m \mp m R = 2^{\text{d}}$  correction. Consequently,  $m s + \text{correction } \gg \text{alt. } (M m) + 1^{\text{st}}$  correction (or  $+ S s \mp S r$ )  $- \text{cor. } \odot \text{ alt. (or } - S s) - 2^{\text{d}}$  correction (or  $- M m \pm m R$ )  $= m s \mp S r \pm m R = R r$  as was shewn on last page, which proves that our 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>d</sup> corrections, applied according to our rules, will give the value of  $R r$  required,

*Appendix to the Method of working a Lunar Observation.*

TO simplify the calculations of a Lunar Observation, some small additions may be made in the tables of Logarithmic fines, which will considerably facilitate the work.

In the first place, when regulating a timepiece, by means of an altitude of the Sun or other object, the common rule for finding the apparent time gives the cosine of half the hour angle; from which the angle itself is found and doubled, and generally (by seamen) turned into time, by means of a table calculated for that purpose. All this may be avoided by putting the corresponding time in the side columns of the table of fines (the margin of these tables being generally wide enough for that purpose.) Adjoined is an example of the table for 21 degrees: at the top they are all marked P. M. at the bottom, A. M. so that if the log. cosine was 9.96991, by inspection, we should immediately find, that the time in the side column corresponding, was 2<sup>h</sup> 48' 40" P. M. which is the time from passing the meridian of the object. If the logarithm was 9.55597, the cosine would be at bottom, and the time corresponding 2<sup>h</sup> 48' 40", is to be subtracted from 12<sup>h</sup> to obtain the time from passing the meridian of the object. These tables may be thus marked in three or four hours, nothing can be more simple than the method of doing it, as it requires only a constant addition of 8" for every minute of the circle.

Again, in all the tables of fines, which I have seen, the degrees are only marked from 0 to 90: Now, it often occurs in  
finding

finding the apparent time, sun's azimuth, &c. that the degrees, whose logarithms are wanted, exceed 90; in which case, the common method is to subtract it from 180, and make use of the remainder. To 2 Hours P.M. 21 Degrees. 158

avoid this subtraction, the degrees above 90 to 134 may be marked at the left hand column of the bottom of the table; and from 135 to 179 at the right hand column of the top of the table; the numbers to be marked down, being the difference between the printed numbers and 179: as in the example, 158 is the difference between 179 and 21; and 111 is the difference between 179 and 68, the odd minutes must be found in the column directly above or below where

		M	Sine.	Cofine	Tang.	Cotan.	Secant.	Cofec.	
h	"								
2	48	0	0						60
		8	1						59
	16	2							58
	24	3							57
	32	4							56
	40	5	9.55597	9.96991					55
-----									
	48	6							54
	56	7							53
49	4	8							52
	12	9							51
	20	10							50
-----									
	28	11							49
	36	12							48
	44	13							47
	52	14							46
50	0	15							45
-----									
	8	16							44
	16	17							43
	24	18							42
	32	19							41
	40	20							40
-----									
Sec.	Sec.	Sec							Sec
54	0	45							15
	8	46							14
	16	47							13
	24	48							12
	32	49							11
	40	50							10
-----									
	48	51							9
	56	52							8
55	4	53							7
	12	54							6
	20	55							5
-----									
	28	56							4
	36	57							3
	44	58							2
	52	59							1
2	56	0							0
-----									
			Cofine.	Sine.	Cotan.	Tang.	Cofec.	Secant.	M

9.96991, and the sine of  $158^{\circ} 55'$  is 9.55597. These numbers may be marked through the whole table in 15 or 20 minutes. I have marked some requisite tables in this manner, and find it simplifies the calculations to young calculators.

In general three observers are required to make the requisite observations for determining the longitude; one to measure the distance of the two bodies, the other two to take their altitudes. If the altitudes were not observed, it has been customary to calculate them, by means of the given time of observation, the latitude of the place, declinations and right ascensions of the objects, which are found from the nautical almanacs. This calculation for the stars and moon is lengthy, and is also liable to some error, on account of the uncertainty of the ship's longitude, which will alter the numbers taken from the ephemeris. The following method I have made use of, for a long time, to simplify the work, and I have lately observed that Mr. Vince, in his new system of astronomy proposes the same method.

Observe the altitudes of the objects before and after you have measured their distance, and note the times of observation (for greater exactness a number of distances may be measured and their corresponding times noted, taking the mean of all the distances and times for the true measured distance and time.) Then add together the prop. log. of the variation of altitude, between the two observations and the prop. log. of the time elapsed between observing the first altitude and measuring the mean distance; from the sum subtract the proportional log. of the time elapsed, between the observation of the altitudes, the  

remainder

remainder will be the proportional log. of the variation in altitude, which is to be added to the first observed altitude, if increasing, or subtractive if decreasing. The sum, or difference will be the required altitude at the time of observation, which is to be corrected, as usual, for the sun's semidiameter, and dip of the horizon. In this manner I have often obtained the altitudes, in much less time than I could have obtained them by other calculations, and sufficiently exact for any nautical purpose whatever.

E X A M P L E.

Suppose the times, altitudes, distances, &c. to have been observed, as below, it is required to find the altitudes at the time of measuring the mean distance.

Time.	Dist. obs. $\odot$ $\nearrow$ n. l.	Time.	Obs. alt. $\nearrow$ l. l.	Time.	$\odot$ Obs. alt. l. l.
2 <sup>h</sup> 3' 20"	40° 0' 0"	2 2 0	20 46	2 2 30	40 20
4 20	0 30	2 6 10	21 20	2 7 0	39 12
5 50	1 30				
Mean, 2 4 30	40° 0 40	Dif. 0 <sup>h</sup> 4 10	0° 34	Dif. 4 30	1 8

Dif. alt. 0° 34' prop. log. 0.7238	Dif. alt. 1° 8' prop. log. 0.4228
Mean time, 2 4 30	Mean time, 2 4 30
Time of 1st obs. $\nearrow$ 2 2 0	Time of 1st alt. $\nearrow$ 2 2 30
Dif. 2' 30" p. log. 1.8573	Dif. 2' 0" p. log. 1.9542
2.5811	2.3770
Subtract prop. log. 4' 10" 1.6355	Subtract log. 4' 30" 1.6021
9456	
Corr. of alt. 20'	Corr. of altitude, 0° 30' p. log. 7749
Add to 1st alt. 20 46	To be subtracted from the 1st observed altitude. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 40 20 \\ 39 12 \end{array} \right.$
Alt. $\nearrow$ at time of obs. 21 6	Sun's alt. at time of obs. 39 50

So that at the time 2<sup>h</sup> 4' 30", when the moon's mean observed distance was 40° 0' 46", the  $\nearrow$  alt. l. l. was 21° 6', and the sun's observed altitude l. l. 39° 50', after which the calculation may be made as usual.

NOTE. Since this paper was communicated, Mr. Bowditch has compiled and published an Epitome of Navigation, entitled, "*The New Practical Navigator*," into which his new method of working a Lunar Observation is introduced. In that work, to which the reader is referred, will be found a substitute for the Tables mentioned in the above communication.

## ASTRONOMICAL PROBLEM,

*Having the times when a circumpolar star passed the thread of a telescope, above and below the pole, to determine the azimuth of the telescope, and the times when the star passed the meridian.*

By THEOPHILUS PARSONS, Esq. A.A.S.

**H**AVING observed by a clock, the times at which a circumpolar star passed the perpendicular thread of a transit telescope, both above and below the pole, to determine from thence, the azimuth of the telescope, and the times at which the star passed the meridian, both above and below the pole.

Subtract the time when the star passed the thread at the first observation, from the time it passed the thread at the second observation, first adding twelve hours to the latter time, and if the remainder, or interval between the two passages thus found, is equal to the time employed by the star, measured by the same clock, in making half a revolution, then the telescope is placed in the meridian.

If that interval be less than the time of half a revolution, the telescope has a western azimuth, but if that interval be greater, it has an eastern azimuth; that is, when the first observation was made above the pole; but when the first observation is made under the pole, the contrary is to be observed. Now to determine this azimuth, observe the following

**RULE.**

R U L E.

Having turned into parts of a circle, half the difference between that interval, and half of a revolution of the star, = half the sum of the errors in the times of the tranfit, make tang.

\*'s pol. dist.  $\times$  fine  $\frac{1}{2}$  diff. = tang. of an arc, which call X : then fine X  $\times$  sec. lat. = fine azimuth required.

To determine the times when the star passed the meridian, both above and below the pole, observe the following

R U L E.

Let tang. \*'s pol. dist.  $\times$  fine  $\frac{1}{2}$  diff.  $\times$  tang. lat. = to the fine of an arc, which call Y : turn this arc into time, and the sum of this arc, and the half difference aforesaid, is the error in time, of the tranfit below the pole ; and the difference between this arc, and the said half difference, is the error in time of the tranfit above the pole.

Or more briefly, the half difference, in time abovementioned, is equal to half the sum of the errors in the times of the tranfit, both above and below the pole, and the arc Y, turned into time, is equal to half the difference of the said errors.

The error in the tranfit above the pole, is to be added to the time of the tranfit, when the telescope has an eastern azimuth, and is to be subtracted, when it has a western azimuth ; but the error in the tranfit below the pole, is to be contrarily applied.

When

When the telescope is nearly in the meridian, so that its error in azimuth does not amount to a degree, the rules may be made more compendious, by using logistic logarithms.

1. For the error in azimuth.

L. L.  $\frac{1}{2}$  diff. + log. tang. \*'s declin. + log. cofin. lat. =  
L. log. of the error in azimuth.

2. For half the difference in time of the errors of the transit, above and below the pole.

L. log.  $\frac{1}{2}$  diff. + log. tang. \*'s declin. + log. cotang. lat. =  
L. log. of half the difference in time, of the errors required.

#### EXAMPLE I.

In latitude  $42^{\circ} 48' 6''$  N.  $\alpha$  Urf. maj. was observed to pass the telescope above the pole, at  $6^h 32' 4''$  in the morning, and to pass the same telescope in the evening, at  $5^h 22' 56''$  under the pole, by a clock which kept mean solar time : required the position of the telescope, and the times when the star passed the meridian, above and below the pole.

	h	'	"
Time of the transit below the pole, + $12^h$	17	22	56
Time of the transit above the pole,	6	32	4
Interval,	10	50	52
Half rev. of the star by that clock,	11	58	2
Difference,	1	7	10
Half difference = half sum of the errors,		33	35
Turned into parts of a circle, at the } rate of $23^h 56' 4'' : 360^{\circ}$		8	25 8
N. dec. of $\alpha$ Urf. maj.	62	54	8
			Tang.

# MATHEMATICAL PAPERS.

15

Tang. of star's pol. dist.	27° 5' 52"	9.7089959
Sine of half diff.	8 25 8	9.1655683
Tang. of arc X,	4 17 3.4	8.8745642
Sine of arc X,	4 17 3.4	8.8733504
Sec. of lat.	42 48 6	10.1344755
Sine of azimuth west,	5 50 37.9	9.0078259

Now to find the times of the tranfit.

Tang. of star's pol. dist.	27° 5' 52"	9.7089959
Sine of $\frac{1}{2}$ diff. = $\frac{1}{2}$ sum of errors,	8 25 8	9.1655683
Tang. of lat.	42 48 6	9.9666410
Sine of arc Y = $\frac{1}{2}$ diff. of errors,	3 58 41	8.8412052

The arc Y turned into time, at the }  
rate of  $360^\circ : 23^h 56' 4''$  }  $h \quad ' \quad ''$   
15 52

Half the diff. in time above found,	33 35
Their diff. is error of the tranfit above the pole,	17 43
Their sum, is error of do. below the pole,	49 27
Time of tranfit above the pole,	6 32 4
Error minus,	17 43

Time of passing the meridian above the pole, 6 14 21

Time of tranfit below the pole, 5 22 56

Error plus, 49 27

Time of passing the meridian below the pole, 6 12 23

PROOF.

## P R O O F.

From the time of passing the merid. below the pole, 6 12 23

Subtract the time of passing do. above the pole, 6 14 21

There remains (= to half the time of the } 11 58 2  
star's revolution by the clock)

## E X A M P L E II.

Suppose every thing as in the last example, only that the star  
passed above the pole in the morning, at 6<sup>h</sup> 0' 0"

And below it in the evening, at 6 3 56

Interval, 12 3 56

Half revolution of the star, 11 58 2

Difference in time, 5 54

Half diff. = half sum of the errors, 2 57

The same in parts of a circle, 0° 44' 22"

## 1. To find the azimuth.

L. log. of  $\frac{1}{2}$  diff. =  $\frac{1}{2}$  sum of errors, 0° 44' 22" 0.1311

Log. tang. of \*'s declination, 62 54 8 10.2909

Log. cosine of latitude, 42 48 6 9.8655

L. log. error in azimuth, east, 0 30 57 0.2875

## 2. The errors of the transit.

L. log. of  $\frac{1}{2}$  diff. =  $\frac{1}{2}$  sum of errors, 0° 44' 22" 0.1311

Log. tang. of \*'s declination, 62 54 8 10.2909

Log. cotang. of latitude, 42 48 6 10.0333

L. log. of  $\frac{1}{2}$  diff. of errors = arc Y, 0 21 2 0.4553

21'

# MATHEMATICAL PAPERS.

17

	h	'	"
21' 2" turned into time, is	0	1	24
Half diff. above found, is		2	57
Error above the pole,	0	1	33
Error below the pole,	0	4	21
The time of tranfit above the pole,	6	0	0
Error plus,		1	33
Time of passing the meridian above the pole,	6	1	33
Time of tranfit below the pole,	6	3	56
Error minus,		4	21
Time of passing the meridian below the pole,	5	59	35

## P R O O F.

Time of passing the meridian below the pole,	5	59	35
Subtract time of passing do. above the pole,	6	1	33
Remains ( $= \frac{1}{2}$ a star's revolution,)	11	58	2

## D E M O N S T R A T I O N.

IN the annexed Figure, (Plate I. fig. 3.) let the primitive circle, W Y E, represent the plane of the horizon, W  $\Lambda$  E the equator, Z P Y the meridian, P the north pole, Z the zenith, B C D F the parallel described by the circumpolar star, Z A the position of the telescope, intersecting the parallel of the star in C and B, and then the angle A Z Y will be the azimuth of the telescope. Draw the horary circles P C and P B, continuing the latter to F. Then the arc B C is described in the interval between the observations, (supposing the first observation made above the pole) and the angle B P C is known from the time elapsed

D

elapsed during the interval. The arc  $BCF$  is half of the parallel of the star, and is described by it, in half a revolution. The angle  $BPY = DPF$  is the error in the time of the transit below the pole, and the angle  $CPD$  is the error in the time of the transit above the pole. The angle  $CPF$ , the sum of those errors, is the supplement to the angle  $BPC$ . Let fall the perpendicular  $PN$ , and it will bisect the angle  $BPC$ , because  $BP$  and  $CP$  are equal. Draw  $Px$  bisecting the angle  $CPF$ , then because  $CPF$  is the supplement of the angle  $BPC$ ,  $CPx$  the half of  $CPF$  is the complement of the angle  $CPN$ , the half of  $BPC$ ; and consequently the angle  $NPx$  is a right angle: therefore the angle  $DPx$  is the complement of the angle  $NPZ$ . Now because  $CPx (= xPF)$  is equal to half of the sum of the errors, in the times of the transits,  $DPx$  is equal to half of the difference of those errors; for  $CPx (= xPF) + DPx = DPF$  the greatest error, and  $CPx - DPx = CPD$  the least error.

The formulas now to be demonstrated, are to find the angle  $NZP$  the azimuth, and the angle  $DPx$  the half difference of the errors in the times of the transits, called in the second formula the arc  $Y$ .

1. To find the angle  $NZP$ .

In the triangle  $NPC$ , are given the side  $PC$ , the star's polar distance, and the angle  $NPC$ , known by the half interval of time elapsed between the observations, (or rather its complement  $CPx$ , the half sum of the errors in the times of the transits,

fits, known by turning into parts of a circle, half of the difference of the time between the interval of the two passages, and the time of half the star's revolution) to find the side NP, which in the first formula is called the arc X.

By spherics we have  $\text{Rad} : \text{tang. PC} :: \text{cofine NPC} (= \text{fine CPx}) : \text{tang. NP}$ . Therefore  $\text{tang. NP} = \text{fine CPx} \times \text{tang. PC}$ .

Again, in the triangle NPZ: we have NP just found, and the side ZP the colatitude of the place of observation, to find the angle NZP the azimuth required.

Sine ZP (= cofine PY the lat.):  $\text{Rad} :: \text{fine NP} : \text{fine NZP}$ , the azimuth, then  $\text{fine NZP} = \frac{\text{fine NP} (=X)}{\text{cofine PY}} = \text{fine X} \times \text{secant PY}$ .

Q. E. D.

When logistic logarithms are to be used, and the azimuth is small, the fine and tangent of NP do not sensibly differ from each other, nor from the arc NP; and the arc CPx does not sensibly differ from its fine.

If therefore we substitute  $\text{fine CPx} \times \text{tang. PC}$ , for fine NP, the formula is reduced to  $\text{fine NZP} = \text{fine CPx} \times \text{tang. PC} \times \text{secant PY}$ . But if we use the logistic logarithm of the angle CPx, we must take the complements of the tangent PC, and the secant PY, which gives us this compendious formula.  $\text{L. log. of the azimuth} = \text{L. log. half the sum of the errors turned into parts of a circle} + \text{log. tang. of the star's declination} + \text{log. cofine of the latitude of the place}$ .

Q. E. D.

Q. E. D.

2. To find the angle  $DPx$  ( $=$  arc  $Y$ .)

Having already  $\text{tang. } NP = \text{fine } CPx \times \text{tang. } PC$ , in the triangle  $NPZ$  are given  $NP$  and  $PZ$  to find the angle  $NPZ$ , or its complement  $DPx$ , the angle required.

$\text{Rad} : \text{tang. } NP (= \text{fine } CPx \times \text{tang. } PC) :: \text{Cotang. } PZ (= \text{tang. } PY) : \text{cotine } NPZ (= \text{fine } DPx)$  Therefore  $\text{fine } DPx = \text{fine } CPx \times \text{tang. } PC \times \text{tang. } PY$ . And by using the logistic logarithms of the angles  $DPx$ , and  $CPx$ , and the complements of the tangents  $PC$  and  $PY$ , we have this formula.  
 $L. \log.$  of half the difference of errors in parts of a circle  $=$   
 $L. \log.$  of  $\frac{1}{2}$  sum of the errors in parts of a circle  $+ \log. \text{tang.}$   
of star's declination  $+ \log. \text{cotang.}$  of the lat. of the place.

Q. E. D.

N. B. If the clock goes at a different rate from that mentioned in the foregoing examples, proper allowance must be made in determining the angles, from the times of observation.

November, 1786.

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*Remarks on an Eclipse of the Moon seen at Jerusalem, not long before the death of Herod, and mentioned by Josephus. By*  
JAMES WINTHROP, Esq. A.A.S.

THE eclipse, which is the subject of the present paper, is of great importance in chronology, as it serves to ascertain the true point of time from which the Christian æra ought to be

be dated. Josephus having given an account (B. xvii. ch. 6. § 4. Antiq.) of a number of students in the temple, with their preceptors Judas and Matthias being arrested for taking down an eagle, which Herod had placed in the front of the temple, and which they were induced to remove by a report of Herod's death, says, "But Herod deprived this Matthias of the high priesthood; and burnt the other Matthias, who had raised the sedition, with his companions, alive. And that very night there was an eclipse of the moon." Herod had then been sick the greater part of a year, and his disorder had increased to such a degree as to produce frequent faintings, which occasioned reports of his actual death. But he appears really to have died some time in March. This eclipse was then in the last winter of his life, and as Christ was born before the death of Herod, and sometime in the fall of the year, it was in the first winter of his life.

Mr. Whiston, in a note upon this passage, says that it is the only eclipse mentioned by Josephus, and "is of the greatest consequence for the determination of the time of the death of Herod and Antipater; and for the birth and entire chronology of Jesus Christ. It happened March 13th, in the year of the Julian period 4710, and the 4th before the Christian æra."

Nobody will doubt either the disposition or skill of Mr. Whiston to make the best use of his materials. But though he lived, when astronomy, aided by Sir Isaac Newton, Messrs. Flamsteed, Halley, Whiston and their cotemporaries, was assuming a more  
accurate

accurate form, than it ever had ; yet neither their instruments, nor the length of time for which their observations had been continued, enabled them to fix such ancient eclipses with precision. The difficulty of verifying ancient dates by eclipses was felt and acknowledged by all, who attempted it. But since the time of Dr. Halley, that great improver of the tables, the business has been growing more correct. The eclipse now under consideration is a proof of it. By the tables both of Professor Mayer and Mr. Ferguson, it appears that the full moon in December of the winter in which our common æra commences, was between five and six o'clock of the twenty-ninth day ; and that the moon was only eight degrees from the node. As these two sets of tables agreed so nearly, I ascertained the other elements by Ferguson, and find that the moon must have been eclipsed about eleven digits. As the sun set that afternoon at Jerusalem at five o'clock, the full moon being 22' past five, the moon must have risen largely eclipsed. This being only two days before the commencement of our vulgar æra, removes the objection to its being the true æra.

Mr. Whiston's reputation seems to have misled Mr. Ferguson in his remarks on this eclipse (*Astr.* p. 386, 8vo) and the latter either never calculated it by his own tables, or was too modest to set them up against such an authority. Professor Mayer's were published in 1770, which was some years after Mr. Ferguson. If I have made a right use of the Professor's book, he differs but a few minutes from Mr. Ferguson in the mean full moon.

If

If any apology be necessary for calling the attention of the society to a question so long agitated, it will be found in a desire to prove the accuracy of the New Testament history. Every thing that has this effect I trust will be well received.

Cambridge, January 10, 1800.

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*Description of a New INVENTED STEELYARD, by BENJAMIN DEARBORN, F.A.A.*

Boston, May 29, 1792.

SIR,

THE Steelyard sent herewith was designed to correct the errors of fraud and accident, to which those of the common kind are ever liable. By placing the centre of motion above the centre of gravity, and by bringing the points of suspension upon a line with the centre of motion, the beam vibrates either with or without the article weighed, like a scalebeam, if balanced by equal weight of the ends. This prevents the deceptive appearance of an equipoise by dexterity of hand. Dexterity will no more affect this steelyard than a well adjusted scalebeam. The reason will appear by the figure. The centre of motion in the *common steelyard* is D, Plat. I. fig. 4th. The points of suspension C and E. While the beam is in a horizontal position, the points are at equal horizontal distances from the centre; but the moment this position is changed, one point recedes from, and the other approaches the centre in horizontal distance,

distance, until the point C is brought down to A, its greatest distance; and when brought down to B, the beam being at an angle of  $45^{\circ}$  the points of suspension are at the very unequal distances of D H, and D G: the point E being raised to F. No further demonstration can be necessary to prove that accuracy cannot be a characteristic of the common steelyard.

The steelyard accompanying this, by having its centre of motion at F, Plat. I. fig. 5th, on the line of the points of suspension, reduces their horizontal distances in reciprocal ratio upon every motion of the beam, and thereby preserves to each power its respective effect in every position; as at an angle of  $45^{\circ}$  the distances are the equal lines K L and M N. To prevent inaccuracy by disproportionate distances between the fulcrum of the lever and the two powers, two poizes attend the steelyard, for hanging on one or both, as the object to be weighed may require; these poizes are adjusted to certain weights, one being the multiple of the other, and each side of the beam is marked and numbered for one of the poizes, the weight of which is stamped on its respective side of the beam, accompanied with the letter P. The poizes being adjusted to certain weights, become cognizable by the public sealer of weights and measures, and are equally useful in scales, as any other kind of weights.

I am, very respectfully

Sir, your humble servant,

BENJAMIN DEARBORN.

*The President of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.*

## No. I.

*A method of finding the Area of a field arithmetically,*  
by ELIZUR WRIGHT, A. M.

THE investigation of the area of a field, performed according to the two modes of operation, Geometrical and Arithmetical, has in each its peculiar excellences and defects. The lines and figures, arising in a geometrical operation, assist the imagination, and give an exact image and idea of the form of the field. The operation is at the same time easy and expeditious. But the arithmetical method is capable of a higher degree of accuracy, and enables us to approach to a greater nearness to truth. The minutes of a degree, or the decimal parts of a chain, when geometrically considered, approach so near to a point, that it often becomes impracticable to lay them down on paper; which occasions a sensible error in the operation, so that surveyors will frequently differ very considerably in computing the area of the same field. For these reasons it will be doing an acceptable service to furnish the ingenious artist with an universal method of finding the area of a field by numbers, that shall exhibit an easy and natural order, so that the operator may proceed without perplexity or danger of mistake: and also afford a short and concinnous solution, performed with the least possible number of figures. Having had occasion to turn my thoughts to the computation of areas, I hit upon a numerical method of find-

E

ing

ing the area of a field, which I shall attempt to communicate, as it occurred to me, in the following manner :

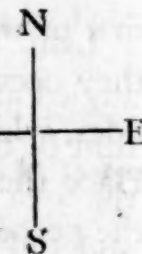
Let it be supposed that the sides  $AB$ ,  $BC$ ,  $CD$ ,  $DA$ , (Plate I. fig. 6,) of a field are hypotenuses of right angled triangles, the bases of which are east and west lines, and are either eastings, as  $EB$ ,  $FC$ , or westings, as  $GD$ ,  $HA$  ; and the perpendiculars north and south lines, being either northings, as  $AE$ ,  $BF$ , or southings as  $CG$ ,  $DH$  according to the bearings of the sides. The eastings, westings, northings, and southings are denoted by the initial letters  $E.W.N.S.$  in the expression of the course. The *calculatrix* is an east and west line, which may possess any assignable place  $EW$ ,  $ew$  (Plate I. fig. 7,) *ad libitum* : but to shorten the operation it is supposed to bisect the first side, with which the operation commences. A perpendicular line  $CO$ , drawn from the further extremity of a side  $BC$  to the calculatrix, is the ultimate *calculatral distance* of that side ; and a perpendicular  $SM$ , drawn from the middle of a side  $BC$ , is the *mean calculatral distance* of that side. In the following method the calculatral distance is taken double. To the triangle  $ABN$  add the trapezium  $NBCO$  ; the sum is the area  $ABCO$  ; from which subtract the trapezium  $OCDP$ , and it leaves the area  $ABCDP$  ; and from this subtract the triangle  $PDA$ , and the remainder is the area of the field  $ABCD$ . The areas of these triangles and trapezia, and from thence the area of the field may be obtained by the following

RULE.

Make a division in the field book of two columns ; in the first of which note down the courses and sides of the field, as they occur. Find the bases and perpendiculars of the several sides, which may be expeditiously done by the help of a table. Place the bases in the first column underneath the sides, and the perpendiculars in the second column, prefixing the *sign* — to those that are *southings*. Let the *calculatrix* be considered as *bisecting* the *first side* ; then the *mean calculatral distance* of the *first side* is equal to 0 ; and its *perpendicular* is equal to its *ultimate calculatral distance*. When they are *both northings*, or *both southings*, take the *sum* of the *ultimate calculatral distance* of the first side, and the *perpendicular* of the second ; and it will be the *mean calculatral distance* of the second side. Again, take the *sum* of the aforefaid *perpendicular* and *mean calculatral distance* ; and it will be the *ultimate calculatral distance* of the second side. But when they are, *one a northing* and the *other a southing*, take their *difference* instead of *sum*. Here let it be observed, that the mean and ultimate calculatral distance is of the same name with the number added to, or subtracted from ; and when it is a *southing*, it must be designated by prefixing the *sign* — to it. In like manner proceed with each of the remaining sides. Multiply the *mean calculatral distance* of each side by its *base*. Then bring the several products, whose factors are northings and eastings, or southings and westings, into one sum : likewise bring the products, whose

factors

factors are northings and westings, or fouthings and eastings, into another sum. To assist the memory let the annexed diagram represent the cardinal points; and let it be conceived, that the products, to be brought into one sum, have their factors in the order W N E, S W; and that those, to be brought into the other sum, have their factors in the contrary order N W, S E. Lastly take the *difference* of these *sums*; *half* of which will be the required *area* of the field.



## EXAMPLE 1.

C. S. E.	P.
S. 69° 43' W. 21.12	—7.32
19 81	0.00
	—7.32
N. 55° E. 18	10.32
14 74	3.00
	13.32
S. 42° W. 6	—4.46
4 01	8.86
	4.40
N. 64° E. 12	5.27
10 78	9.67
	14.94
S. 24° W. 4 17	—3.81
1 70	11.13
	7.32
25 52    25 52	
N E. S W.	N W. S E.
44.2200	35.5286
104.2426	18.9210
148.4626	54.4496
54.4496	
94.0130	
47.0065	

Suppose the survey of a field to be as follows: From the first boundary S. 69° 43' W. 21.12 chains: thence N. 55° E. 18 chains: thence S. 42° W. 6 chains: thence N. 64° E. 12 chains: thence S. 24° W. to the first boundary. The required area is 47.0065 chains, or 4.70065 acres.

When the sum of the eastings is equal to the sum of the westings, and the sum of the northings is equal to the sum of the fouthings; which is known by the ultimate calculatral distance of the last side being equal to the perpendicular of the first side; but of a different name,

the survey is rightly taken; otherwise there is an error either in the courses, or sides.

In

In order to demonstrate this numerical method of finding the area, I shall lay down the following Lemmas.

Lem. 1st. In the trapezium  $RGHQ$  (Plate I. fig. 8,) right angled at  $R$ , and  $Q$ ; if to twice  $GR$  be added  $OH$ , and this sum be multiplied by  $GO$ , the product will be equal to twice the area of the trapezium. For  $2GR \times GO = 2RGOQ$ , and  $OH \times GO = 2GHO$ . Therefore  $2GR + OH \times GO = 2RGHQ$ . Q. E. D.

Lem. 2d. In the foregoing trapezium if from twice  $HQ$  be subtracted  $HO$ , and the remainder be multiplied by  $GO$ , the product will be equal to twice the area of the trapezium. For  $2HQ \times GO = 2RAHQ$ , and  $HO \times GO = 2GAHO$ . Therefore  $2HQ - HO \times GO = 2RGHQ$ . Q. E. D.

Lem. 3d. In figure 9th, plate I. if the triangle  $CFL$  be made equal to the right angled triangle  $BOK$ , then  $ML$  multiplied by  $KM$  will be equal to twice the area of the trapezium  $OFLM$ . For  $ML \times KM = OFLM + OFAK = 2OFLM$ . Q. E. D.

The diagram  $ABCDE$  (Plate I. fig. 10,) is a geometrical construction of the foregoing example.  $KQ$  is the calculatrix.  $KM, DT$  are eastings, and  $IK, ND, PA$  are westings.  $BK + MC, TE$  are northings, and  $AI + KB, CN, EP$  are fouthings.  $CM, DR, EQ, AI$  are the calculatral distances of the sides  $BC, CD, DE, EA$ . The operation according to the construction is as follows.

NE,

NE, SW.

C. S. B.	P.
S. 69° 43' W. A. B.	—AI—KB O
IK	—AI—KB
N. 55 E. BC KM	BK+MC LM 2 CM
S. 42 W. CD ND	—CN 2 CM—CN 2 DR
N. 64 E. DE DT	TE 2 DR+TE 2 EQ
S. 24 W. EA	—EP 2 EQ—EP PA AI+KB

 $2 \text{ OFLM} (= \text{ML} \times \text{KM} \text{ by Lem. 3.})$  $2 \text{ DEQR} (= 2 \text{ DR} + \text{TE} \times \text{DT} \text{ by Lem. 1.})$ 

NW, SE.

 $2 \text{ CDRM} (= 2 \text{ CM} - \text{CN} \times \text{ND} \text{ by Lem. 2.})$  $2 \text{ EAIQ} (= 2 \text{ EQ} - \text{EP} \times \text{PA} \text{ by Lem. 2.})$  $\text{OFLM} + \text{DEQR} - \text{CDRM} - \text{EAIQ}$   
 $\text{Q} = \text{ABCDE.}$ 

DEMONSTRATION.

$$\text{OFLM} + \text{FCL} = \text{OCM.}$$

$$\text{OCM} - \text{CDRM} = \text{OCDR.}$$

$$\text{OCDR} + \text{DEQR} = \text{OCDEQ.}$$

$$\text{OCDEQ} - \text{EAIQ} = \text{OCDEAI.}$$

$$\text{OCDEAI} = \text{OCDEABK.}$$

$$\text{OCDEABK} - \text{BOK} = \text{ABCDE.}$$

Hence by substitution

$$\text{OFLM} - \text{CDRM} + \text{DEQR} - \text{EAIQ} = \text{ABCDE.}$$

Q. E. D.

EXAMPLE

EXAMPLE 2.

C. S. B.	P.	N. E. S. W.	N. W. S. E.
N. 40 E. 10	7.66	93.7388	32.8680
	0.00	5.9826	.7398
6.43	7.66	15.7384	17.5200
N. 56 W. 4	2.24	115.4598	51.1278
	9.90	51.1278	
3.32	12.14		
S. 80 E. 9	-1.56	64.3320	
	10.58	Area is	
8.86	9.02	32.1660	
S. 25 E. 8	-7.25		
	1.77		
3.38	-5.48		
N. 36 W. 7	5.66		
	.18		
4.11	5.84		
W. 3	0.00		
	5.84		
3.00	5.84		
S. 1	-1.00		
	4.84		
0	3.84		
S. 55° 9' W. 10 04	-5.75		
	-1.91		
8.24	-7.66		
18.67	18.67		

No. II.

*A method of finding the area of a Field by east and west areas.*

Assume 10, or 100, or 1000 according to the dimensions of the field for the mean calculatral distance of the first side. Add the perpendicular of the first side, if a northing to its mean calculatral distance; and the sum is its ultimate calculatral distance. But if the perpendicular is a southing, subtract instead of adding. The perpendicular of each of the remaining sides

sides must be *twice added* if a *northing*, but if a *southing*, *twice subtracted* from the ultimate calculatral distance of the preceding side ; the *first* obtains the *mean calculatral distance*, and the *second* the *ultimate calculatral distance* of that side. Multiply the *mean calculatral distance* of each side by its *base*. Then take the *difference* of the *East* and *West* products or areas, *half* of which will be the required *area* of the field.

## EXAMPLE.

C. S. B.	P.	E. Areas.	W. Areas.
S. 69 43 W. 21 12	—7.32	191.6200	198.1000
	10.00	212.0426	75.6286
19 81	2.68		35.9210
		403.6626	
N. 55 E. 18	10.32	209.6496	309.6496
	13.00		
14.74	23.32	94.0130	
		Area is	
S. 42 W. 6	—4.46	47.0065	
	18.86		
4.01	14.40		
N. 64 E. 12	5.27		
	19.67		
10.78	24.94		
S 24 W. 4.17	—3.81		
	21.13		
	1.70		
17.32			
25.52	25.52	10.00	

## No. III.

*A general solution of the problem to find the area of an irregular polygon, having the sides and angles given.*

Let the several sides of the polygon A B, B C, C D, D E, E A (Plate I. fig. 11,) be considered as hypotenuses of right angled triangles, of which the perpendiculars B F, C G, D H, E I are parallel to the prime side A B, or the side with which the operation

ation begins. Also let the given angles  $ABC, BCD, CDE,$  &c. be exchanged for the angles  $FCB, GCD,$  &c. These angles of *commutation* are obtained by methods hereafter described. In order to perform the operation, the several positions of the bases, and perpendiculars, must be discovered, and designated. The perpendiculars on one side of the bases, as  $FB, GC$  are denoted by  $A$ ; and the perpendiculars on the opposite side, as  $HD, IE$  by  $B$ , prefixed to the angle of commutation. Likewise the bases on one side of the perpendiculars, as  $FC, GD$  are denoted by  $A$ ; and the bases on the opposite side, as  $HE, IA$  by  $B$ , suffixed to the angle of commutation. It is evident, that when a side happens to be at right angles with the prime side, the hypotenuse and its base become equal; and when a side is parallel with the prime side, the hypotenuse and its perpendicular become equal: and in the former case the perpendicular, and in the latter the base and angle of commutation vanish, and become equal to  $O$ . Yet for the sake of discovering the positions of the sequent bases, and perpendiculars, they must be retained, and brought into the calculation. For this end they may be considered as indefinitely small quantities, or quantities less than any assignable one; and will therefore be expressed by  $O$ . Place either  $A$ , or  $B$  before, and either  $A$ , or  $B$  after the evanescent angle of commutation belonging to the prime side. Then the an-

F

gles

gles of commutation may be found by the following rule, which contains two cases.

CASE I. When the letters affixed to the angle of commutation last found, are the *same*.

Take the *sum* of the angle of *commutation* last found and the *given* angle, if the given angle be *inward* : but if it be *outward*, take their *difference*.

CASE II. When the letters affixed to the angle of commutation last found, are *different*.

Take the *difference* of the angle of *commutation* last found and the *given* angle, if the given angle be *inward* : but if it be *outward*, take their *sum* ; and the result is denominated the *factum*. In both cases when the *factum* is less than 90, it is the angle of commutation sought : but when it exceeds 90, subtract it from 180 ; and when it exceeds 180, subtract 180 from it, and the remainder will be the required angle of commutation.

Nextly the positions of the bases and perpendiculars may be easily discovered from the foregoing operation by inspection thus :

CASE I. When the *factum* is *less* than 90.

PROP. 1. If the angle of *commutation* be *subtracted* from the *given* angle, the letters prefixed to the two angles of commutation last found, will be *unlike*, and the letters suffixed will be *like*.

PROP. 2. If the angle of *commutation* be *not subtracted* from the *given* angle, the letters prefixed will be *unlike*, and the letters suffixed *unlike*.

CASE II. When the factum is *greater* than 90.

PROP. 1. If the *sum* of the angle of *commutation* and *given* angle be *subtracted* from 180, the letters prefixed will be *like*, and the letters suffixed *unlike*.

PROP. 2. If the aforesaid *sum* be *not subtracted* from 180, the letters prefixed will be *like*, and the letters suffixed *like*.

When the factum is 90, it may be considered as belonging either to Case I, or Case II; and when the factum is 180, it may be considered as belonging either to Case II. Prop. 1, or Case II. Prop. 2, ad libitum; each supposition leading to a true discovery of the positions of the subsequent bases and perpendiculars.

The *calculatrix* is a line K L (Plate I. fig. 12.) bisecting the second side BC, and at right angles with the prime side A B.

A perpendicular D L drawn from the farther extremity of a side C D to the calculatrix, is the ultimate *calculatral distance* of that side.

A perpendicular M S, drawn from the middle of a side C D, is the *mean calculatral distance* of that side.

In the following method the calculatral distance is taken double.

double. Find the bases and perpendiculars of the several sides ; placing the bases in the second column underneath the sides, and the perpendiculars in the third column. Prefix the *negative sign* — to those bases and perpendiculars, whose positions are designated by *B*. Passing over the prime side, the *mean calculatral distance* of the *second* side is equal to *O* ; and its *perpendicular* is equal to its *ultimate calculatral distance*. Take the *sum* of the *ultimate calculatral distance* of the second side, and the *perpendicular* of the third according to the rules of Algebra, and it will be the *mean calculatral distance* of the third side. Again take the *sum* of the *aforesaid perpendicular* and *mean calculatral distance*, and it will be the *ultimate calculatral distance* of the third side. In like manner proceed with each of the remaining sides. Multiply the *mean calculatral distance* of each side by its *base* : then *half* the Algebraic *sum* of these products will be the required *area* of the polygon. It may here be observed, that when the work is done right, the angle of commutation for the last side is equal to the given angle at the beginning of the operation : also the sum of the affirmative bases is equal to the sum of the negative bases ; and the sum of the affirmative perpendiculars is equal to the sum of the negative, which is the case, when twice the perpendicular of the prime side being added to the ultimate calculatral distance of the last side, the result is equal to the perpendicular of the second side, but of a contrary value.

EXAMPLE

EXAMPLE 1.

A.	S. B.	P.
14° 43' A. 0 A.	18 0	18
13° B. 13 B.	6 -1.35	-5.85 0.00 -5.85
22° A. 9 B.	12 -1.88	11.85 6.00 17.85
40° B. 31 B.	4.17 -2.14	-3.57 14.28 10.71
134° 17' 165. 17 B. 14. 43 A.	21.12 5.37	-20.43 -9.72 -30.15
	5.37 5.37	36.00 5.85

-31.2800  
30.5592  
52.1964  
94.0356  
Area is  
47.0178.

EXAMPLE 2.

A.	S. B.	P.
15° 4' B. 0 A.	10 0	-10
84° A. 84 B.	4 -3.98	.41 .00 .41
24° B. 60 A.	9 7.79	-4.50 -4.09 -8.59
125° A. 65 A.	8 7.25	3.38 -5.21 -1.83
11° B. 76 B.	7 -6.79	-1.69 -3.52 -5.21
126° A. 50 B.	3 -2.30	1.93 -3.28 -1.35
90° 140 A. 40 A.	1 64	.77 -.58 .19
124° 56' 164. 56 A. 15. 4 B.	10.04 -2.61	9.70 9.89 19.59
	15.68 15.68	-20.00 -.41

+23.9008  
7.5440  
31.4448

-31.8612  
37.7725  
0.3712  
25.8129  
95.8177  
31.4448  
64.3729

Area is  
32.1864

EXAMPLE 1.

In the Polygon A B C D E there is given the angles E A B = 14° 43', A B C = 13°, B C D = 22°, C D E = 40°, D E A = 134° 17'; and the sides A B = 18, B C = 6, C D = 12, D E = 4.17, E A = 21.12; required the area.

EXAMPLE 2.

In the polygon A B C D E F G H there is given the angles H A B = 15° 4', A B C = 84°, B C D = 24°, C D E = 125°, D E F = 111°,

$=11^\circ$ ,  $EFG=126^\circ$ ,  $FGH=90^\circ$ ,  $GHA=124^\circ 56'$ ; and the sides  $AB=10$ ,  $BC=4$ ,  $CD=9$ ,  $DE=8$ ,  $EF=7$ ,  $FG=3$ ,  $GH=1$ ,  $HA=10.04$ ; required the area.

The magnetical needle is found to vary several minutes from a true traverse. This is occasioned by friction. Where a great accuracy therefore is required in taking the survey of a field, this general rule for finding the polygonal area may be very advantageously applied. For this end take the mensuration of the including angles of the field, independent of the needle, which may be done with great exactness with a good instrument. Then having measured the sides with care and exactness, we have the angles and sides of an irregular polygon given to find the area. If the bearings of the several sides are desired, they may in the following manner be made to arise from the calculation itself. Interpolate the polygon, at the prime angle, with an indefinitely short side, being a meridian line, had by celestial observations, or the magnetical needle. Take the angles, which this side makes with the adjoining sides of the polygon, and note them down with the rest. This infinitesimal side is to be considered as the prime side, and may be expressed by O. Having obtained the angle of commutation for the second side, instead of the designating letters A, B, introduce the initial letters of the cardinal points proper to that side; distinguishing those that stand in the room of B by a dash over the top. The angles of commutation will now become the points of compass, and express the true bearing of each side.

EXAMPLE

EXAMPLE 1.

A. C.	S. B.	P.
69°. 43' A. o A.	o	o
125° 125 A. 55 B. N. 55 E.	18 14.74	10.32 0.00 10.32
-13° S. 42 W.	6 4.01	-4.46 5.86 1.40
22° N. 64 E.	12 10.78	5.27 6.67 11.94
40° S. 24 W.	4.17 1.70	-3.81 8.13 4.32
134°. 17' 110. 17 S. 69. 43 W.	21.12 19.81	-7.32 -3.00 -10.32
NW. SE.	NE. SW.	
23.4986 13.8210	71.9026 59.4300	
37.3196	131.3326 37.3196	
	94.0130	
	Area is	
	47.0065	

EXAMPLE 2.

A. C.	S. B.	P.
55°. 9 B. o B.	o	o
140° B. 40 A. N. 40 E.	10 6.43	7.66 100.00 107.66
84° 124 N. 56 W.	4 3.32	2.24 109.90 112.14
24° S. 80 E.	9 8.86	-1.56 110.58 109.02
125° 205 S. 25 E.	8 3.38	-7.25 101.77 94.52
11° N. 36 W.	7 4.11	5.66 100.18 105.84
126° S. 90 W.	3 3.00	-0.00 105.84 105.84
90° 180 S. o E.	1 0.00	-1.00 104.84 103.84
124°. 51' 124. 51 S. 55.9 W.	10.04 8.24	-5.75 98.09 92.34
	18.67 18.67	7.66 100.00

W. Area.

364.8680  
411.7398  
317.5200  
808.2616  
1902.3894

E. Area.

643.0000  
979.7388  
343.9826  
1966.7214  
1902.3894  
64.3320

Area is

32.1660

Canaan, (Connecticut) March 20, 1792.

*Remarks on Mr. Winthrop's paper on the duplication of the Cube in part 1st of this volume. By GEORGE BARON, late Master of the Mathematical Academy at South Shields, in the County of Durham, in England.*

MR. Winthrop has attempted the duplication of the Cube, in a paper inserted at page 25, part I. vol. 2, of the Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. This paper is entitled "Geometrical methods of finding any required series of mean proportionals between given extremes." It consists of four problems. In problem 1. is shewn the well known method of finding one mean proportional between two given extremes. Problem 2. is "To find two mean proportionals between two given extremes." On the truth of this problem the two remaining problems, together with Mr. Winthrop's duplication of the Cube, entirely depend. I shall therefore here, first describe Mr. Winthrop's method of finding two mean proportionals between two given extremes: Secondly, shew that the demonstration which he has attempted to give of that method is not true. And thirdly, I shall demonstrate that that method is universally false. And hence it will follow, that Mr. Winthrop's duplication of the Cube is universally false.

First then, I am to describe Mr. Winthrop's method of finding two mean proportionals between two given extremes. The substance of it is as follows.

Let

Let it be required to find two mean proportionals between any two given extremes  $Y$  and  $Z$ . (Plate 1, fig. 13th.)

Take any straight line  $AC=Z$ , (Plate 1, fig. 14) and from the point  $C$  draw  $CI$  making any angle  $ACI$ , less than one third of two right angles. Make the angles  $ICK$  and  $KCB$  each equal  $ACI$ , and make  $CB=Y$ . Join  $AB$  intersecting  $IC$  and  $KC$  in  $E$  and  $D$ . From  $E$  and  $D$  draw  $EG$  and  $DF$ , making the angles  $AEG$  and  $BDF$  each equal  $ACI$ , and intersecting  $AC$  and  $CB$  in  $G$  and  $F$ . Through  $A$  and  $B$  draw  $AI$  parallel to  $GE$ , and  $BK$  parallel  $DF$ , meeting  $CE$  and  $CD$  produced in  $I$  and  $K$ . Then are  $CK$  and  $CI$  the mean proportionals required.

Secondly, I am to shew that the demonstration, which Mr. Winthrop has attempted to give of the above method, is not true. The substance of it is as follows.

The angle  $BDC=DEC+ECD$ ; but  $BDF=ECD$ . Hence the triangles  $FDC$  and  $DEC$  are similar. Also the angle  $AEC=EDC+DCE$ , but  $AEG=DCE$ : hence the triangles  $GEC$ ,  $EDC$  and  $DFC$  are all similar to each other. And therefore  $CF:CD:CE:CG$ . Again because  $AI$  is parallel to  $GE$ , and  $KB$  parallel to  $DF$ , join  $IK$ , and  $IK$  is parallel to  $ED$ . Consequently the triangles  $ACI$ ,  $ICK$  and  $KCB$  are all similar one to another; and therefore  $CB(Y):CK:CI:CA(Z)$  as was required.

But although  $AI$  is parallel to  $GE$ , and  $KB$  is parallel to  $DF$ , it does not follow that  $IK$  is parallel to  $ED$ ; and therefore Mr. Winthrop's demonstration is not true.

G

I am

I am thirdly to demonstrate that Mr. Winthrop's method of performing this problem is universally false.

Because Mr. Winthrop has not proved that  $IK$  is parallel to  $ED$ , it does not follow that  $IK$  is not really parallel to  $ED$ . Imagine therefore that  $IK$  is parallel to  $ED$ . Then will the triangles  $AI E$ ,  $K B D$ ,  $G E C$ ,  $E D C$ ,  $D F C$ ,  $A I C$ ,  $I K C$  and  $K B C$  be all similar to one another. Therefore  $IE : KD :: CE : CD$ ; and also  $IE : KD :: AI : BD$ . But  $AI$  is to  $BD$  in the complicated ratio of  $AI$  to  $KB$  and of  $KB$  to  $BD$ , and  $AI : KB :: AC : KC :: \overline{CE}^2 : \overline{CD}^2$ ; also  $KB : BD :: CE : CD$ . Therefore  $AI : BD :: \overline{CE}^3 : \overline{CD}^3$ . But it has just been proved that  $AI : BD :: IE : KD :: CE : CD$ ; and hence  $\overline{CE}^3 : \overline{CD}^3 :: CE : CD$ , which is absurd.  $IK$  cannot therefore be parallel to  $ED$ ; and consequently this method of performing the problem is universally false. And as Mr. Winthrop's mode of duplicating the Cube depends upon the truth of this problem, it is also universally false. Q. E. D.

The same may be demonstrated by a variety of other methods. For instance by the addition of fines, tangents, &c. or by the logarithmic spiral.

I must at the same time acknowledge that Mr. Winthrop's mistake on this subject was so natural, that I at first followed him in it. A second inspection convinced me of my mistake.

*HALLOWELL, in the DISTRICT of MAINE, June 2, 1798.*

N. B. Soon after the paper, to which Mr. Baron's observations relate, was communicated to the Academy, it was examined by several of the members, skilled in mathematical science, who were of opinion, that the author had not demonstrated his theorem. But at the particular request of the author the committee for publication consented to its insertion in the Memoirs.

*Mr. JOSEPH POPE's description of an Orrery of his construction.*

AS the number of appearances, explained by an Orrery, depends upon the number and exactness of its motions, the following description of the performances of the Orrery completed by me in the year 1788, will shew its utility.

On the large circle of this machine, representing the ecliptic, are engraven the signs and degrees of the Zodiac, with the days and months of the year ; in the centre of which, is a brass ball, representing the SUN, turning on its axis, in  $25\frac{1}{2}$  diurnal rotations of the earth ; its axis declines from the axis of the ecliptic circle, 8 degrees, and its north pole tends towards the 8th degree of Pisces.

The planets represented by ivory balls, are as near their relative diameters and distances as the convenience of the machine will permit ; they revolve round the sun in their various eccentric and inclined orbits. Mercury, the nearest to the Sun, being the first in order, with his axis perpendicular to the ecliptic, performs his motion round the Sun in  $87\frac{1}{4}$  diurnal rotations of the earth, or in 87 days, 23 hours.

The next is Venus, she performs her annual course in 224 days 17 hours, of our time, and her diurnal motion, in 24 days 8 hours ; her axis declines 75 degrees from that of the ecliptic, keeping parallel to itself ; the North Pole tends towards the 20th degree of Aquarius.

The

The next to Venus is our Earth, half covered with a black cap, which is always in opposition to the Sun. She makes  $365\frac{1}{4}$  diurnal rotations on her axis in the same time she performs her annual revolution : her axis declines from that of the ecliptic, 23 degrees 29 minutes, preserving its parallelism round the Sun ; her north pole tends towards the first degree of Cancer. The Moon, accompanying the Earth, performs her periodical revolution in 27 days, 7 hours, 43 minutes, turning on her axis exactly once in the same time, and performing her synodical revolution, or from sun to sun, in 29 days, 12 hours, 45 minutes. On the circle representing her orbit are marked the nodes and degrees of her north and south latitudes, the plane of which forms an angle of 5 degrees with the plane of the ecliptic ; the nodes have their back motions passing through all the signs and degrees in  $18\frac{1}{2}$  years. There is another body, half covered with a black cap, which at all times shews its dark part ; it turns on its axis, which declines from the axis of the ecliptic and keeps parallel to itself round the earth ; it exhibits all the phenomena explained by the above moon.

Mars is without the earth's orbit, with his axis perpendicular to the ecliptic, performing his annual motion in  $686\frac{1}{2}$  days, and diurnal in 24 hours, 40 minutes.

Jupiter is at a greater distance from the Sun than Mars, with his axis perpendicular to the ecliptic, completing his annual circuit in 11 years, and 314 days, 18 hours, and his diurnal motion in 9 hours, 56 minutes.

Saturn,

Saturn, the most distant from the sun of all the planets in the machine, with his axis perpendicular to the ecliptic, performs his annual course in 29 years, 167 days, 1 hour.

The Satellites of Jupiter and Saturn, at their different distances, nearly in true time, revolve round their primaries; the one most remote from Jupiter revolves in its inclined orbit; the orbits of the other three are coincident with the plane of the ecliptic. Saturn's five satellites,\* in their revolutions, keep in the plane of his ring, which forms an angle with the plane of the ecliptic of 30 degrees, and preserves its parallelism round the Sun.

There are two dial plates, one shewing the common, the other the sidereal time; also several other pieces, which may be applied occasionally, viz. a small horizon circle, semi-circle, solar ray, &c. The whole machine is put in motion by the turn of a single winch.

JOSEPH POPE.

*November 12, 1794.*

\* Mr. Pope's Orrery was constructed, and this account of it prepared, before Dr. Herschel's discovery of the two additional satellites of Saturn was announced.

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## PHYSICAL PAPERS.

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I. *Description of four remarkable Fishes, taken near the Piscataqua in New Hampshire.* By WILLIAM D. PECK, Esq. A.A.S.

THAT part of the Atlantic which washes the extensive sea coast of Massachusetts, affords a considerable number of Fishes, many of which are but little known; and very few have been systematically noticed. This is not surprising, when it is considered that our fishermen are very inattentive to any but such as are esteemed fit for food. Of these the number is comparatively small, nor are the specific characters of them as yet ascertained. Four Fishes of different genera will be the subject of this paper.

The first, (Plate II. fig. 1.) was brought me by a boy who called it a white eel. The head of this fish is naked and whitish; the vertex flattened, the upper and hinder edge of the orbits a little elevated. The nostrils are tubular, and situated near the extremity of the snout, which is obtuse.

The upper jaw is shorter than the lower, and furnished with a double row of small teeth; and a single row of larger, curved teeth, inserted in the margin of the palate. The lower jaw is without a beard; the front teeth in a tripple, and the lateral ones in a double row, all curving back.

The

The branchial membrane is expanded, naked, and supported by six bones.

The eyes, rather small and black, have the iris somewhat silvery, and are a little sunk in their orbits. The head is  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch in length.

The body is long, nearly round, slippery, and destitute of scales ; diminishing gradually from the beginning of the anal fin, and ending obtusely at the insertion of the tail. The colour of the body is nearly that of the human skin, with scattered blotches of a pale rust-colour.

There is no lateral line. The anus is placed before the equilibrium of the fish.

The dorsal fin occupies the whole length of the back, beginning a little behind the region of the pectoral fin, and extending to the tail, with which it is connected by its membranes. It is supported by LXXVI simple rays, which do not perforate the margin of the fin.

The pectoral fin is small, of a broad oval figure, inserted a little behind the branchial aperture, and furnished with XIV soft, branched rays.

There are no ventral fins. The anal fin has XLIX rays, the three first of which are simple, the rest branched. It extends to the tail, with which like the dorsal fin, it is united by its membranes. The last rays in both are a little removed from those of the tail, so that they are easily distinguished.

The

The caudal or tail fin is rounded and supported by XXII branched rays, and marked with numerous black dots.

From the above particulars, this fish appears to be a species of *Ophidium* or Snakefish, and approaches most nearly the *Ophidium imberbe* of Linnæus, which he says, is an inhabitant of the Baltic, and often found within the shells of oysters.\* He observes also that the dorsal fin has ten spots:\* but the specimen above described is above nineteen inches in length, and the back fin of an uniform colour. It may be called for the present *Ophidium (imberbe) maxillis imberbibus, cauda rotundata, pinnâ dorsi unicolore*. It was taken in a muddy creek in the river Piscataqua, and is the only individual of this genus that I have met with.

Whether it is in fact a variety of the *Ophidium imberbe* of Linné, or a new species, time may discover. It is sketched at fig. I.

Fig. II. (Plate II) represents a fish which was brought me in the month of August. The body of this fish is nearly ovate, compressed, and its breadth is equal to about one third of its length; thickest in the middle; gently convex, and becoming thinner to an edge, at the back and abdomen. The colour of the back is dark, especially the head, which is nearly black and destitute of scales.

The head is compressed and declining from its union with the body to the nose; of the same thickness with the body; and from the extremity of the upper lip, to the angle of the opening

\* *Fauna svecica* edit. 2da. Stockholm, 1761, page 114.

opening of the gills is equal to  $\frac{1}{10}$ th of the length of the fish. The mouth obliquely descending, backward, and of a middling size. The rostrum obtuse. The upper jaw a little shorter than the lower. The teeth very small, cylindric, strait, erect, equal, and closely set, in a single row, in the margin of both mandibles. The tongue entire and rounded. The palate destitute of teeth. The nostrils double; nearer to the rostrum than to the eyes; the anterior foramen small and round, the posterior larger and vertically oblong. The eyes are lateral, nearly in the middle of the head, almost round, naked; the iris silvery with the upper part blueish; the pupil rather large and black. The covers of the gills, are formed of two laminae, the exterior of which is smaller, semiovate, marked with obscure furrows disposed in a radiate form, and of a silver colour: the interior is larger, and contained within the segment of a circle, whose centre is near the pupil of the eye. There are no scales on these covers. The branchial membrane is in a great measure covered; it contains six officles, the first and second much the shortest, and all of them much curved. The head and anterior part of the back as far as the beginning of the dorsal fin are without scales.

The back is arched, and becoming gradually thinner from the middle of the fish upward, and towards the root of the fin is marked on each side with a dotted line, composed of about twenty pores, placed in a single row, beginning even with the fin, and extending parallel to it, a little more than half its length.

H

The

The sides are gently convex. The abdomen nearly of the same figure with the back and is a little more arching: the carina is bony, as in the herring tribe, but not ferrated. The lateral line is curved; and near the back but not quite parallel to it. The anus linear, and one third nearer the head than to the tail. The tail narrow and terminated by a deeply divided fin.

The scales are rather small, imbricated, smooth, close, flexible, and easily rubbed off; of a bright pearl colour.

There is a small horizontal spine, pointing forward, at the beginning of the dorsal fin; another at the beginning of the anal fin: and a third, arising from the sternum and pointing backward, a little before the anus.

The dorsal fin occupies almost the whole length of the back, and terminates at the narrowing of the tail. It contains XLV rays, the four first simple, the rest branched, the fifth and sixth longest; thence gradually shorter to the middle of the fin, from which they retain nearly the same length. The pectoral fins are lance shaped, about a quarter part as long as the fish, and furnished with XXI soft rays, the lower ones very short. There are no ventral fins. The anal fin is of the same form with the dorsal, but smaller; extends as far back as that does, and is supported by XLII rays. The tail fin forked and acute, a little shorter than the pectoral and has XXI rays.

The whole length of the specimen from which the figure

was taken, was  $9\frac{1}{2}$  inches, its breadth  $3\frac{3}{16}$  inches, and its thickness  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch, in the thickest part.

This fish is furnished with two stomachs, one of which is situated near the throat and is nearly round, muscular, and rough on the inside ; the other is in the abdomen. It becomes putrescent so soon after being taken out of the water, that the internal economy could not satisfactorily be farther investigated.

In the principal particulars of its generic character it accords with the Stromateus of Linné ; its specific character may be taken from the spines with which it is armed : hence it may be defined Stromateus (triacanthus) spinulâ antrorsum decumbente ante pinnam dorsalem et analem, aliâque posticâ spectante ante anum. Linné in Syst. Nat. Vol. I. p. 432 mentions two species, the Stromateus (Fiatola) subfasciatus, and St. (Paru) unicolor, and to the latter he adds a synonym from Sloane's Nat. Hist. of Jamaica.\* The specimen above described differs from the Fiatola in not being at all striped, and from the Paru it differs exceedingly in the form of the dorsal and anal fins, as well as in the spines, if Sloane's figure is accurate.

This genus appears to have been named by Artedi from *Στροματίδης*, Pulvinar, as the gentle convexity of the sides gives somewhat the appearance of a cushion.

I have given it a trivial name and defined it as a new species ; and have been induced to this by being unable satisfactorily

\* Sloane's Nat. Hist. of Jamaica, Vol. II. plate 250, fig. 4. Pampus.

torily to apply to it either of the Linnean definitions. As truth is the great object in inquiries of this kind, if I have fallen into an error, I shall think myself indebted to any experienced naturalist who shall set me right.

In the summer months, the fishermen sometimes find a single fish of this kind in their wears ; but since writing the above, a fisherman brought me four, which he took up with his hands from a crowded schull, that he believed occupied three acres in extent. They were taken on the New Hampshire coast, about a league from the mouth of the Piscataqua. There is no popular name for it. It is probably a migratory fish.

Fig. III. is the figure of a fish which is taken on the haddock grounds, principally in the months of March and April.

Its body is ensiform, subcylindric, diminishing gradually toward the tail ; slippery, covered with a copious lubricating humour and a very tenacious skin. The colour approaches umber, especially on the back ; on the abdomen pale, and in some specimens whitish.

From the middle line upwards, through the whole length, it is marked with darker spots, arranged in a triple series, so as to appear in a manner chequered.

The head declining, broader than the body, and smooth ; equal to about  $\frac{1}{3}$ th part of the length of the fish. The mouth large and nearly horizontal. The snout a little acuminate. The upper jaw longest. The lips fleshy and thick, the upper one a little folded back ; the lower one loose, and pendant at the sides. There are no cirri.

The

The cheeks muscular and protuberant. Teeth conical in both jaws.

The upper front teeth larger than the lower, and placed in a double row ; the lower front teeth also in a double row ; the lateral ones, both above and below, simple, and extend as far back in the jaws as the angle of the mouth. The upper ones are about 18 in number, on each side ; the lower ones about 12 ; they are all bent a little back and in a great measure concealed by loose gums. There are no teeth in the palate. The nostrils are tubular, and situated about half way between the eyes and the extremity of the rostrum.

The eyes are placed high, are rather oval than round ; rather small, and naked. The Iris golden. The branchial membrane contains six strong rays, and is but little covered.

The back is nearly straight ; the abdomen tumid : lateral line small and obscure. The anus much nearer the head than the tail, so that from the throat to the anus is scarcely  $\frac{1}{4}$ th part the length of the fish. The tail from the anus to the end, contains above  $\frac{1}{2}$ ths of the length of the fish, and tapers gradually to its extremity, ending in a point. The scales are small, nearly oval, separate, adhering by their whole under surface, and a little sunk beneath the superficies of the skin. They are represented by dots in the figure.

The dorsal fin begins a little back of the head, extends the whole length of the back, is united with the tail fin, and at its point joins the anal fin. It contains CXLVI rays, XVIII of which,

which, from the 99th to the 116th inclusive are very short, curved backward, and pointed ; the rest are soft and branched. The pectoral fins are rounded and contain XX strong branched rays. The ventral fins are placed under the throat and contain III rays. The anal fin extends from the anus to the extremity of the tail where it is united with the dorsal, and contains CXXIII branched rays. The caudal fin is so united with the dorsal and anal that it is difficult to separate them ; it is therefore divided equally between them. The last rays are so minute that they cannot be enumerated without removing the skin.

In the internal economy, as well as in several external particulars, it resembles the catfish. The ovarium is single ; and like other fishes which reside at the bottom, it has no air bladder.

It feeds principally on echini and asteriæ of several species. To collect its food, it is necessary that it should frequent rocky places, and to this it must be owing, that in the larger individuals, the ventral fins are entirely obliterated, except two small cicatrices ; so that at first view they appear to be a species of *Anarhicas*.\* It is therefore from the younger fish only that the classical character can be determined. From the resemblance above mentioned it has probably obtained the  
name

\* *Lupus marinus* of authors. *Anarhicas Lupus* of Linné, called here catfish, and wolf fish, or catfish in Dr. Cullen's catalogue of the *Mater. medic.*

name of Wolf, by which it is known to our fishermen. It is sometimes called Conger Eel. In the consistence of the muscles it is like the eel, and deprived of its head and skin, it is sometimes sold as such ; but it is preferable to the eel, as it feeds on living food ; whereas the eel feeds on carcases. The largest I have seen was 31 inches in length.

This fish is a species of *Blennius* : it appears to differ from all the Linnean *Blennii*, and uncertain whether it has ever been described, I shall take its trivial name from the form of its body, and call it *Blennius (anguillaris) pinnis dorsali, anali, caudalique unitis ; dorsali prope caudam radiis octodecim abbreviatis spinosis.*

The fish represented at fig. IV, is of the carp kind and is the *Cyprinus (Catostomus) pinnâ ani radiis octo, labio imo carunculâ bilobatâ papillofâ, caudâ bifidâ* ; first described and figured by Dr. John Reinhold Forster in the 63d Vol. of Transactions of the Royal Society. His figure, compared with this, will be found to differ in the form of the head, although they both have the same specific marks.

Dr. Forster observes that, in his specimen, " the head was full of elevations and tubercles ; that he could not determine the colour of the iris of the eye ; that the body was compressed or flat." It seems probable from these circumstances, that his specimen had been exposed to the air and in some measure dried before he received it. The delineation here given was made with tolerable accuracy from a specimen newly taken.

The

The head had no remarkable elevations except that over the nose and the futures expressed by dotted lines in the figure. It is one of the roundest of its genus. The head is of the same breadth with the body, "gradually decreasing toward the nose. The mouth is quite under the head; when shut, it is semilunar; when open, round; not far from the extremity of the snout and included in small round lips. To the under lip is fixed a bilobate, beardlike, papillose caruncle. There are no teeth." The eyes are rather large, the iris of a pale, golden colour. There are III rays in the branchial membrane. "Over each eye is a longitudinal future." There is no transverse future between the nostrils. "On the covers of the gills are two, one on each side, beginning near the lobes of the caruncle of the under lip and going up arched toward the eye. Near the extremity of the snout begins on each side a longitudinal one, passes round the eye and mounts in a curvature behind it, then it goes on" a little waving "to the end of the head, where it again gets downwards and joins the lateral line. Where the head joins the body the two futures are connected by a transverse one, which, as it were, separates the head from the body. The lateral line at first descends, then runs on straight, rather nearer the back than the belly, to the beginning of the tail."

The top of the head, and back are of an umber colour, becoming paler on the sides; the body underneath is whitish with a cast of fawn colour, and according as it is placed in the sun, reflects a golden lustre.

"The

"The scales are small near the head and back, increasing in size toward the middle and tail, close to which they are again smaller. The dorsal fin is somewhat behind the equilibrium of the fish, rhomboidal and consisting of XII strong branched rays."\*

Pectoral fins of a broad lance shaped figure, placed near the covers of the gills, and contain XVII rays. The ventral fins have IX rays. The anal fin is rather large and strong, supported by VIII rays, the first of which is simple, the rest branched, the last divided at its base, and has the appearance of two rays. "The tail somewhat forked or concave," and contains XIX rays. The pectoral, ventral, and anal fins are tinged with yellow.

Dr. Forster's specimen was from Hudson's bay, and he mentions "two varieties, both whitish; but one distinguished by a mixture of a beautiful red." This which is found in our waters is probably a third variety. The most remarkable particular in its internal structure is the form of the air bladder, which at about  $\frac{1}{3}$  part from its anterior extremity is contracted into a small neck, in such a manner that there appear to be two bladders; the anterior nearly round, the posterior oblong and somewhat conical.

It is called Sucker in the neighbourhood of Boston, and in the District of Maine it is improperly named Barbel.

*KITTERY, 19th Sept. 1794.*

II. *On*

\*For these quotations, see Phil. Transact. of Royal Soc. of Lond. Vol. 63. part I. page 155, and for the figure, see plate 6, page 157, ejusdem.

*II. On Meteorological Observations and Bills of Mortality, in a letter from EDWARD A. HOLYOKE, M.D.A.A.S. to the late EDWARD WIGGLESWORTH, D.D. A.A.S.*

*Salem, Feb. 22d, 1790.*

DEAR SIR,

I AM much obliged to you for a sight of those papers, you forwarded to me by Mr. Prince : I think your method of communicating the results, only, of your meteorological observations, much to be preferred to the gross bill, for though, to condense them in this manner, be a work of much labour, yet it occasions such papers to be much more attended to, than they otherwise would be, and of course much more useful ; though I think it might be useful too, to file the observations, at large, with the secretary, because there may be certain inferences of importance drawn from these, which cannot be from those, such as, E. Gr. the effect the winds have upon the mercury in both barometer and thermometer, &c.

I could not help attending, particularly, to the article of winds, by which I find all the American observations, I have met with, on that head confirmed, and that yours agree with what I have advanced in a paper I presented to the Academy on the comparative cold and heat of Europe and America, viz.

that westerly winds are by much the most prevalent ; for the two years contained in your paper I find the westerly winds are to the easterly as 673 to 258.

I was glad to find by your communication on the bills of mortality, that so many gentlemen have attended to this matter ; and hope the stock of these bills will be much enlarged, as it is only from a large number, and those continued for a course of years, that general conclusions can be deduced with any good degree of certainty. And I could wish that when gentlemen are at the trouble of forming bills of this kind, that they would be as particular as possible : I think much information might be obtained from a *monthly* bill, which should likewise particularize the *diseases* of which each person died in each month, and the *age* of the deceased : this would inform us, not only which month was most fatal to our species ; but also what kind of diseases were most prevalent in each month, and to what ages the fatality was chiefly confined ; and these are all objects of importance.

Upon the bill of ages which you have collected, I would observe, that the 1st, the 5th, and 6th periods are the largest, and that the 3d is the least, in proportion to the numbers living ; which facts may, I think, be accounted for thus ; Infancy is an almost continued state of sickness, and the human body, not having yet attained any considerable degree of strength and vigour, many at this period must of course sink under their various maladies : but between 10 and 15 (the 3d period) when

when man has survived the danger of infancy, and the body hath acquired some degree of firmness, but not its full growth, he is then but little liable to diseases, especially such as arise from obstruction, as the vessels are now soft and pliant, and at the same time enlarging every day, in diameter, so that if obstructions should be formed, the natural and rapid growth hath a direct tendency to prevent any mortal effects from this cause. But between the ages of 20 and 30 (the 5th and 6th periods) the mortality is greatly increased; which occasioned me no small surprise when I first attended to this circumstance, 7 or 8 years ago, when I first began to keep an account of deaths; but which I believe must be accounted for in this way. It was observed by Hippocrates, and the observation has been confirmed by almost every physician since, who has treated of the subject, that pulmonary phthisis is by far the most incident to persons between 18 and 35 years old: now this disease has of late become much more frequent, both here and in Europe, than formerly, and makes up, I believe, at least a 10th, perhaps a 6th of our whole bill of mortality; if then we take 489, i. e. about one 10th of the deaths in your bill, and distribute that number into the years which Hippocrates and common observation tell us are most obnoxious to phthisis, we shall find it will amply account for the increase of deaths in these periods; for we find that from 20 to 35 the deaths amount to 645, from which, if we deduct 489 for consumptive cases, we have left but 156 for the whole mortality of these 15 years, from other causes; to which we must add  
that

that persons, at this age, are as liable to fevers, as perhaps at any other, and that their numbers are greater than at any subsequent period : so that with the exception of phthisis this period is perhaps the most favourable to human life.

Si quid novisti rectius istis, candidus imperti,  
Si non, his utere mecum.

I am with esteem, Sir, your very humble servant,

E. A. HOLYOKE.

*Rev. Professor Wigglesworth, D. D.*

*Synopsis*

*Synopsis of several Bills of Mortality, by Rev. JOSEPH  
M'KEAN, A.A.S. President of Bowdoin College.*

Place and time of observation.	No. of dths.	Un- der 1 y.	Bet. 1 & 5	5 & 10	10 & 20	20 & 30	30 & 40	40 & 50	50 & 60	60 & 70	70 & 80	80 & 90	90 & 100	Ab. or 100
Roxbury, 1st parish, from 1783 to the end of 1793. 11 years.	245	41	47	3	14	30	25	13	15	20	23	13	1	0
Marblehead, 2d parish, 1787 to 1792. 6 years.	337	75	75	16	13	28	30	27	22	24	13	12	2	0
Stow, 1775 to 1796. 22 years.	266	46	57	27	23	21	11	11	13	11	27	16	3	0
Brimfield, 1775 to 1789. except 1785. 14 years.	212	42	33	15	17	23	18	15	9	8	12	17	3	0
Westfield, 1782 to 1791. 10 years.	234	46	30	13	20	24	17	11	12	20	24	12	5	0
East Kingston, 1740 to 1771. 32 years.	283	62	62	27	24	26	19	22	16	9	11	5	0	0
Barnstable, East precinct, 1786 to 1795, except 1793. 9 years.	168	32	21	2	8	14	9	11	15	16	25	13	2	0
Hamilton, 1772 to 1796. 25 years.	294	63	29	5	23	25	16	22	20	30	23	30	6	2
Exeter, 1784 to 1788. 5 years.	126	18	14	5	9	17	10	10	6	11	12	12	2	0
Salem, 1783 and 1784, 304 deaths, ages unknown 13, reckon only	291	71	76	16	10	32	21	20	11	11	17	8	0	0
Edgartown, 1761 to 1791. 31 years.	367	97	50	3	16	46	17	27	14	19	16	10	4	cert.
Beverly, 1st parish, 1785 to 1797. 13 years.	589	139	112	29	23	59	56	31	31	39	33	32	5	0
Total,	3412	732	606	161	200	345	249	220	184	218	254	205	36	2

CONTINUED.

*Synopsis of several Bills of Mortality.*

63

CONTINUED.

Place and time of observation.	No. of dths.	und. 1 year.	bet. 1 & 5	5 & 10	10 & 20	20 & 30	30 & 40	40 & 50	50 & 60	60 & 70	70 & 80	80 & 90	90 & 100	Ab. 100
Ipswich, 1st and S. parish, 1786, 7.	85	15	8	3	5	10	7	6	3	5	14	8	10	
Salisbury, 1786 to 1788. 3 years.	77	11	8	6	6	6	2	8	2	8	11	8	10	
Montague, 1786 to 1791. 6 years.	59	15	10	0	2	5	8	6	1	3	4	4	10	
Northborough, 1786 to 1791. 7 years.	52	11	3	2	1	5	5	5	2	1	8	6	30	
Hanover, 1786 to 1789. 4 years.	51	4	6	0	4	6	6	4	2	1	4	12	20	
Gloucester, 1786.	42	3	5	3	3	8	4	5	3	2	4	2	00	
Brookfield, 3d parish, 1786 to 1789. 4 years.	41	6	13	1	2	4	0	3	3	3	2	2	20	
Cambridge, 3d parish, 1786 to 1789. 4 years.	29	5	5	0	4	2	4	4	0	0	2	1	20	
Cambridge, Dr. Rand's observations, 1786 to 1788. 3 years.	26	1	7	2	1	1	3	1	1	4	2	3	00	
Fryburg, 1786 to 1790. 5 years.	25	8	4	3	1	0	3	1	2	0	3	0	00	
Wenham, 1786 and 1787.	21	1	4	2	0	0	2	1	0	3	5	3	00	
Wilmington, 1786 and 1787.	19	2	2	1	1	2	2	0	1	3	3	2	00	
Northampton, 1786.	19	4	2	0	1	3	1	1	1	2	2	2	00	
Newbury, 2d parish, 1786 and 1787.	13	4	1	0	2	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	00	
Reading, 1st parish, 1786.	8	2	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	1	1	0	00	
Weymouth, S. parish, 1786.	8	3	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	00	
West Hampton, 1786.	4	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	00	
Brought over,	579 3412	96 732	80 606	23 161	33 200	58 345	50 249	47 220	24 184	36 218	67 254	53 205	120 362	
Total,	3991	828	686	184	233	403	299	267	208	254	321	258	482	

CONTINUED.

## CONTINUED.

The Bills from Hampton, Dover, Waltham, and Newton, give the number of deaths under 2 years, and between 2 and 5.

Place and time of observation.	No. of dths	und. 2 y'rs.	bet. 2 & 5	5 & 10	10 & 20	20 & 30	30 & 40	40 & 50	50 & 60	60 & 70	70 & 80	80 & 90	90 & 100	ab. 100
Hampton, 1735 to 1763.	624	166	65	53	62	50	35	23	23	43	59	30	15	0
From 1767 to Oct. 31, 1791.	260	58	14	10	11	27	8	15	13	19	41	36	8	0
Dover, 1767 to Sept. 1786.	377	93	29	21	18	24	14	17	19	37	48	31	5	1
Waltham, 1767 to 1788.	244	62	20	13	19	18	18	17	13	13	25	22	4	0
Newton, east part, 1782 to 1791. 10 years.	129	29	4	7	5	12	8	13	9	8	16	14	4	0
Total,	1634	408	132	104	115	131	93	95	77	120	189	133	36	1

The Bills from Falmouth, W. Springfield, Hatfield, Ashburnham, and one from Marblehead, give in one number the deaths under 5 years of age.

Place and time of observation.	No. of dths	und. 5 y'rs.	bet. 5 & 10	10 & 20	20 & 30	30 & 40	40 & 50	50 & 60	60 & 70	70 & 80	80 & 90	90 & 100	Ab. 100
Falmouth, 1st parish, from 1769 to 1783. 15 years.	340	148	15	17	42	39	19	19	22	14	4	1	0
W. Springfield, 1770 to 1785. * 12 of these died in the army.	*209	98	13	10	19	9	9	3	14	21	11	2	0
Hatfield, from 4th March, 1772, to 4th March, 1792.	201	77	17	13	11	9	5	12	17	20	16	4	0
Ashburnham, from 1769 to 1786. † 8 of these died in the army.	†136	85	2	5	10	5	1	1	3	8	5	1	0
Marblehead, 2d parish, 1786.	65	38	2	4	3	3	5	4	3	1	2	0	0
Total,	951	446	49	49	95	65	39	39	59	64	38	8	0

The

The whole number of deaths on the preceding bills is 6576, which happened at the following periods of life.

Under 5 years of age,	2500	Living at birth,	6576
Between 5 and 10	337	at 5 years,	4076
10 and 20	397	10	3739
20 and 30	629	20	3342
30 and 40	457	30	2713
40 and 50	401	40	2256
50 and 60	324	50	1855
60 and 70	433	60	1531
70 and 80	574	70	1098
80 and 90	429	80	524
90 and 100	92	90	95
Above 100	3	100	3

Stillborn infants, and deaths abroad, have been rejected, when they could be distinguished. In the 828 deaths, which are said to have happened in the first year of life, some still-born are included; but it is thought the number is not considerable. In the bills from Marblehead, about 12 or 15 deaths are supposed to have happened abroad, which could not be distinguished. In the observations of several years at Edgartown, which were communicated in one bill to the Academy, the ages of those who were upwards of 70, are not particularly noted. It is said 39 were 70 years of age and upwards. The distribution of these to the following periods was made in the usual proportion; but marked as uncertain. This is the only instance in which any thing has been done

by conjecture. All the other ages in the Synopsis are agreeable to the bills. The laws, by which the waste of human life is governed, are to be learned from facts, not hypothesis.

*Deductions from select Bills of Mortality, by Rev. JOSEPH M'KEAN, A.A.S. President of Bowdoin College.*

THE following tables were formed from observations made in Hatfield, from March, 1772, to March, 1792; in Stow, from Jan. 1775, to Jan. 1797; in the East precinct of Barnstable, from Jan. 1786, to Jan. 1796, except 1793; in Hamilton, from Jan. 1772, to Jan. 1797; and in the first parish of Beverly, from Jan. 1785, to Jan. 1799.

Age.	Hatfield.		Stow.		Barnstable E.P.		Hamilton.		Beverly, 1st parish.	
	No. on years the bills	Ann'l decr't	No. on the bills	Ann'l decr't	No. on the bills	Ann'l decr't	No. on the bills	Ann'l decr't	No. on the bills.	Annual decrement.
0	201	45	266	46	168	32	294	63	634	132
1	156	16	220	26	136	8	231	13	482	64
2	140	7	194	14	128	6	218	7	418	30
3	133	5	180	10	122	4	211	7	388	12
4	128	4	170	7	118	3	204	2	376	13
5	124	4	163	7	115	1	202	1	363	12
6	120	3	156	6	114	0	201	1	351	6
7	117	4	150	6	114	0	200	3	345	2
8	113	3	144	5	114	1	197	0	343	6
9	110	3	139	3	113	0	197	0	337	4
10	107	2	136	2	113	0	197	3	333	2
11	105	1	134	2	113	0	194	0	331	1
12	104	1	132	2	113	1	194	4	330	1
13	103	1	130	2	112	0	190	2	329	2
14	102	1	128	2	112	1	188	1	327	1

This is the only instance in which any thing has been done  
Age.

*Deductions from select Bills of Mortality.*

67

Age.	Hatfield.		Stow.		Barnstable, E. P.		Hamilton.		Beverly, 1st parish.	
years	No. on the bills.	decre-ment.	No. on the bills.	decre-ment.	No. on the bills.	decre-ment.	No on the bills.	decre-ment.	No on the bills.	decre-ment.
15	101	1	126	2	111	1	187	4	326	2
16	100	1	124	2	110	1	183	2	324	2
17	99	2	122	3	109	2	181	5	322	6
18	97	1	119	3	107	1	176	2	316	2
19	96	2	116	3	106	1	174	0	314	4
20	94	1	113	2	105	1	174	4	310	4
21	93	1	111	2	104	1	170	0	306	3
22	92	2	109	2	103	2	170	1	303	4
23	90	1	107	2	101	1	169	2	299	8
24	89	1	105	2	100	2	167	5	291	8
25	88	1	103	2	98	1	162	2	283	7
26	87	1	101	2	97	1	160	2	276	6
27	86	1	99	2	96	1	158	6	270	6
28	85	1	97	2	95	2	152	2	264	8
29	84	1	95	3	93	2	150	1	256	11
30	83	2	92	1	91	1	149	2	245	8
31	81	1	91	1	90	1	147	1	237	6
32	80	1	90	1	89	1	146	2	231	5
33	79	1	89	1	88	1	144	1	226	2
34	78	2	88	1	87	1	143	1	224	7
35	76	0	87	1	86	0	142	3	217	4
36	76	0	86	1	86	1	139	2	213	4
37	76	1	85	2	85	1	137	1	209	9
38	75	1	83	1	84	1	136	2	200	8
39	74	0	82	1	83	1	134	1	192	5
40	74	1	81	1	82	1	133	2	187	5
41	73	1	80	1	81	2	131	0	182	5
42	72	1	79	1	79	1	131	2	177	2
43	71	0	78	1	78	1	129	1	175	2
44	71	0	77	1	77	0	128	2	173	0
45	71	0	76	1	77	0	126	6	173	1
46	71	0	75	1	77	1	120	1	172	0
47	71	1	74	2	76	2	119	3	172	7
48	70	0	72	1	74	2	116	3	165	5
49	70	1	71	1	72	1	113	2	160	7
50	69	2	70	1	71	1	111	5	153	3
51	67	2	69	2	70	2	106	2	150	4
52	65	1	67	1	68	1	104	2	146	0
53	64	2	66	1	67	2	102	1	146	4
54	62	1	65	2	65	1	101	0	142	7
55	61	1	63	1	64	2	101	3	135	3
56	60	0	62	1	62	1	98	3	132	3
57	60	1	61	1	61	2	95	0	129	4
58	59	1	60	2	59	1	95	2	125	4
59	58	1	58	1	58	2	93	2	121	1
60	57	1	57	1	56	2	91	7	120	3
61	56	1	56	1	54	2	84	1	117	2
62	55	2	55	1	52	2	83	1	115	4
63	53	2	54	1	50	2	82	7	111	3
64	51	2	53	2	48	2	75	2	108	7
65	49	2	51	1	46	2	73	2	101	2
66	47	2	50	1	44	1	71	1	99	5
67	45	2	49	1	43	1	70	4	94	4
68	44	1	48	1	42	1	66	4	90	8
69	42	2	47	1	41	1	62	1	82	4

Age.

Age.	Hatfield.		Stow.		Barnstable, E. P.		Hamilton.		Beverly, 1st parish.	
years.	No. on the bills.	decre-ment.	No. on the bills.	decre-ment.	No. on the bills.	decre-ment.	No. on the bills.	decre-ment.	No. on the bills.	decre-ment.
70	40	2	46	2	40	3	61	2	78	2
71	38	3	44	2	37	3	59	1	76	3
72	35	2	42	3	34	4	58	4	73	6
73	33	3	39	3	30	4	54	1	67	4
74	30	2	36	3	26	3	53	3	63	2
75	28	2	33	2	23	2	50	3	61	4
76	26	1	31	3	21	1	47	3	57	1
77	25	1	28	3	20	2	44	1	56	3
78	24	2	25	3	18	2	43	5	53	4
79	22	2	22	3	16	1	38	0	49	7
80	20	3	19	3	15	2	38	10	42	7
81	17	3	16	3	13	2	28	1	35	7
82	14	2	13	2	11	1	27	3	28	4
83	12	2	11	2	10	1	24	2	24	1
84	10	1	9	1	9	1	22	6	23	2
85	9	1	8	1	8	1	16	3	21	4
86	8	1	7	1	7	1	13	3	17	0
87	7	1	6	1	6	2	10	0	17	1
88	6	1	5	1	4	1	10	2	16	5
89	5	1	4	1	3	1	8	0	11	5
90	4	1	3	1	2	0	8	3	6	0
91	3	1	2	0	2	1	5	0	6	0
92	2	0	2	1	1	0	5	1	6	2
93	2	1	1	1	1	0	4	0	4	2
94	1	1	0	-	1	0	4	0	2	0
95	0	-	-	-	1	1	4	0	2	1
96	-	-	-	-	0	-	4	1	1	0
97	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	0	1	1
98	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	1	0	-
99	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	0	-	-
100	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	0	-	-
101	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	1	-	-
102	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-
<hr/>										
	6281		7338		6462		10827		17388	
	100		133		84		147		317	
20	6181	22	7205	9	6378	25	10680	14	17071	
	309		133		708		427		1219	

From the whole number of persons in each of the preceding tables, half the number that stands against 0 years is subtracted, because they do not all come into life at once, and the several remainders, being divided by the number of years, in which the observations were respectively made, would give the number of persons living in the several places of observation, if the births and deaths were equal.

The

The results are as follow,      The true numbers are,

Hatfield,	309	-	-	703
Stow,	327	-	-	830 mean.
Barnstable, E. P.	708	-	-	1365
Hamilton,	427	-	-	about 900
Beverly, 1st parish,	1219	-	-	2561
Total,	2990			6359

The true number exceeds the number deduced from the tables, in nearly the same proportion that the births exceed the deaths.

The number of deaths on these bills is 1563, and the births in the same places, and same periods of time, were about 3375.

As 1563 : 3375 :: 2990 : 6456, differing but 97 from the true number, which in a calculation of this kind is not great, as the data cannot be perfectly accurate.

The mean annual number of deaths in the preceding places of observation is nearly 98, and the births nearly 213; the natural increase therefore is 115. Now, if 2990, the number of inhabitants deduced from the tables, were the real stock, this rate of increase would be sufficient to double the number in a little more than 18 years and one third. But as the real stock of inhabitants to be doubled by this increase is 6359, the period of duplication is 38 years and 7 tenths. It hence appears that the increase of population in the old towns in

New

New England is not so rapid as has been supposed. But the rates, at which even old towns are increasing, are very different; as will appear from the following table, in which the times of observation, the number of inhabitants, the annual deaths, births, increase, and periods of duplication are exhibited together.

	Time of obs.	No. inhab.	Deaths.	Births.	Increase.	Period of duplication.
Nantucket,	8 years	4620	63.62	175.	111.38	29.1 years.
Northborough,	12 $\frac{2}{3}$	550	6.55	19.58	13.03	29.6
Stow,	22	830	12.13	28.63	16.50	35.2
Beverly, 1st parish,	14	2561	45.28	95.	49.72	36.
Barnstable, E. P.	9	1365	18.66	44.44	25.78	37.
Shrewsbury,	20	963	12.15	26.75	14.60	46.
Hatfield,	20	703	10.05	20.15	10.10	48.6
Hamilton,	25	900	11.76	24.48	12.72	49.3
Newton,	10	1360	19.	38.20	19.20	49.5
		13852	199.20	472.23	273.03	

The whole number of inhabitants in these nine places is 13852, their mean annual increase is 273, and their period of duplication is 35 $\frac{1}{2}$  years.

*Account of a Water Spout, in Watuppa Pond, at Freetown, in a Letter from NEHEMIAH BENNETT, Esquire, to JOHN DAVIS, Esquire.*

*Middleborough, Oct. 5, 1798.*

DEAR SIR,

I HERE give you a description of the remarkable Water Spout, which took place in Freetown, in the County of Bristol, in a Pond called the *North Watuppa Pond*. The Pond

is about four miles in length, from north to south, and from half a mile to a mile in width from east to west. This phenomenon, which was seen at the distance of eight or ten miles, took place in the month of August, 1797. The day was clear and calm, and the pond very smooth, previous to its beginning. Its first appearance was about two of the clock in the afternoon. A roughness of the water was noticed near the east shore of the pond, and very soon the water began to rise in form of a pyramid or cone, to appearance about forty feet in height; thence it arose perpendicularly in a cylindrical form, in a very short time, and apparently, to the height of a cloud, which at the same time was rising from the west. The cloud, at this time, appeared to be low, and the front or foremost part was projected nearly in a perpendicular direction, toward the head of the water spout. The column of water, still increasing in height, at length formed a curve near the top, to meet the cloud, and quickly united with it; at this time the cloud appeared to thicken and turn dark. The cone of water appeared at bottom, about two rods in diameter, and at about forty feet in height; it appeared to be about three or four feet in diameter; thence, of the same bigness, to the cloud, and all appeared very black. This cone was surrounded with a mist or spray of water, of about twenty rods in diameter at bottom, and in the same conic form, to the height of about thirty or forty feet.

In about ten minutes after it had united with the cloud, the bottom of the spout separated from the pond, so that the observers could see under it, and as soon as it had thus separated,

ed, it swiftly moved westward, across the pond. When it came to the land, it twisted limbs from trees, tore the bushes and carried leaves and sticks into the air. Crossing the land for a small distance, and coming to a brook, a small column of water again arose from the brook, to the height of twenty or thirty feet, and pointed towards the foot of the spout which had separated from the pond, and at this time was at a considerable height. In a short time afterward, the whole of the spout arose and was all dissolved in the cloud, without any sudden or very uncommon fall of water. In about three quarters of an hour, or an hour afterwards it began to rain, and rained for about an hour very powerfully; but the shower was confined to the vicinity of the pond, and extended not far any way. The motion of the water, in rising, was in form of a screw, and the whirl or course of the water was against or contrary to that of the sun. It appeared to run very swiftly.

I have collected this account from several respectable gentlemen in the neighbourhood of the pond, who were eye witnesses to the phenomenon. One in particular, who gave me the most minute account, was within about eighty rods, and particularly attended to it.

Sir, if the foregoing will be serviceable in your philosophical studies, or in any other way, the views of your humble servant in transmitting it will be completely answered.

NEHEMIAH BENNET.

Hon. JOHN DAVIS, Esq.

An

*An account of some of the mineral productions in the State of New York, (accompanying specimens transmitted for the Cabinet of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences,) in a Letter from BENJAMIN DE WITT, M.D. Sec. N. Y. Soc. Agric. Arts and Manufact. F.A.A. F.H.S. &c. to ELIPHALET PEARSON, L.L.D. Corresponding Secretary of the Academy.*

DEAR SIR,

HAVING a convenient opportunity by the Rev. Mr. Kirkland to transmit to your Academy a sett of the transactions of our Society for the promotion of Agriculture, Arts and Manufactures, instituted in the State of New York, which I promised you ; I also send by the same hand some specimens of mineral substances from my collection, which the American Academy of Arts and Sciences will please to accept. I am fond of seeing collections of the subjects of Natural History, and therefore willing to contribute my mite towards them. Indeed such collections, when they become large, are not only highly interesting as objects of curiosity ; but also of great use in the study of those sciences, which have nature for their subject, such as Botany, Chemistry, Zoology, &c. They exhibit as it were in one view the natural history of a whole country, or of the whole world in proportion to their extent. They open to our eyes numerous pages in the book of nature, and allow us at once to read her beautiful and marvellous works. They present to us an elegant compendium of the creation, condensed in the small space of a room. If the many

intelligent gentlemen, scattered all over our country, who possess a taste for such studies, were each to collect only a few of the curious objects that fall in their way, and transmit them to one luminous centre, such as that of your excellent Institution; we should soon be in possession of a complete natural history of our country. Discoveries would be daily made, and the most important benefits result therefrom. The many plants and fossils which now perhaps are embosomed in the wilderness, or buried in the earth, would be brought to light, and applied to the most useful purposes of life. I should therefore wish to see our *American* academies of science, Philosophical societies and other literary institutions pay particular attention to this subject. I can promise you but a few specimens at present, as follows.

No. 1. exhibits a specimen of *iron ore*, procured from a mine near West Point, in the vicinity of Hudson's river. This ore is so rich that it will bear transporting in sloops from there to Albany, and from thence a number of miles inland to a forge for the purpose of refining.

No. 2. *Iron ore* found in the township of Marcellus, county of Onondago. This mine is known but by a few individuals, and not yet worked.

No. 3. *Bog ore* of iron found also in the county of Onondago, at no great distance from the salt springs.

No. 4. *Bog ore* of iron, very rich, found near the Ballstown springs, and forged in large quantities.

No. 5. A specimen of a beautiful milk white *Gypsum*, or plaster of paris, of a carminated texture, and somewhat transparent, found in large quantities in the township of Camillus and county of Onondago.

No. 6. The same *Gypsum* calcined by a gentle heat and fallen to powder, resembling the finest flour in softness and whiteness.

No. 7. A transparent glassy specimen of the same kind of *Gypsum*, from the same place.

No. 8. A solid piece of *Gypsum* from the same place, and somewhat resembling the former, but exhibiting an appearance like camphor on the surface of its transverse fracture.

The body of Gypseous Chrystal, of which the foregoing are samples, lies about seven miles nearly west from the Salt Springs; and about a quarter of a mile southward from where the main road to the westward crosses the stream that runs out of the *Ostisco lake*, here called the Nine mile Creek. In consequence of this situation, near the *Ostisco lake* and outlet, it is called the *OSTISCO GYPSUM*. From this place the waters are navigable with batteaux into the Onondago or Salt lake and Seneca river, affording a convenient transportation. The *Gypsum* is found against the banks of a gully, in which the waters that run through it in wet seasons have worn a pebbly channel. The bank declines but a few degrees from a perpendicular. About ten or fifteen feet from the bottom the *Gypsum* is seen like a rock of chrystal, which has been wholly covered with a few

few inches of mould; and seems to have been accidentally discovered by somebody climbing up the bank and slipping the loose ground from the solid surface of the Gypseous rock with his foot. A surface of perhaps a yard in diameter has only been uncovered, and presents an appearance which immediately gives you an idea that the body of the mountain is of the same substance. Although nobody has yet taken the pains of tracing it beyond the surface, which is mentioned as being exposed to view. This plaster of paris, or rather *Ostisco Gypsum*, existing to appearance in such large quantity and of such a superior quality, must in time become of great use to agriculture and the arts. I believe it to be much preferable to the best kinds found in Europe, and used for the finest works.

No. 9. A more impure piece of *Gypsum* found about eight miles west of the main body above described, near where the western road crosses the outlet of the Schanateles lake.

No. 10. An adulterated specimen of *Gypseous earth*, lying between two strata of the impure stone in which it is embedded; found in lot No. 35 of the Onondago reservation, about two or three miles east of the *Ostisco quarry*. It was discovered in digging a well six or eight feet below the surface of the ground. These minerals being found in so many places, and at the distance of two, three and eight miles from the principal body, shews that the country abounds with them, and affords a strong presumption that they exist in very large quarries.

No.

No. 11. Supposed to be an imperfect *Gypseous stone* of a blue colour, found in great quantities on the banks of the Cayuga lake. I have made no experiments on this; but it emits a sulphureous smell when heated in the fire.

No. 12. Contains four varieties of *plaster of paris* from Nova Scotia, which, when compared with our's, will shew the difference between the two.

No. 13. A *calcareous petrefaction* formed in the stream of a spring of running water; precipitated and concreted in large masses, among the moss.

No. 14. A specimen of the *calcareous concretion*, cemented round pebbles and various other stones, dug out of the bottom of the salt springs; and found under the earth in large bodies, along the declivity in the vicinity of the springs. Of this nature I take to be the rocky bottom of all the salt springs of Onondago, produced probably by a precipitation of the lime from the water. (See my memoir on the salt springs and manufactories of Onondago. Agric. Transf. N. Y. Soc. No. III. p. 99.)

No. 15. A sample of the *mossy plant* growing in abundance in the bottom of the salt lake, which in shallow places may be seen almost covering the whole of it. It still retains the peculiar smell which seems to be imparted to it by the salt water. I suspect it to be of the nature of the plant *kali*, and perhaps the mineral alkali might be obtained from it.

No.

No. 16. A *red slaty stone* taken out of one of the salt springs.

No. 17. *Red stony fragments* of which the declivity from the high ground descending to the Salt Springs is composed. The earth also intermixed with this is of the same colour, resembling the red soil of New Jersey at Brunswick; perhaps the water oozing through this earth may give that property to the salt water by which it colours the wood and surfaces of stones as it issues from the springs, although itself appears clear and transparent.

No. 18. *Salt chrystalized* in small chrystals, procured from a pot of the salt spring water after it was boiled down.

No. 19. *Product of the salt water* by simple evaporation without separation. It has a reddish tinge, owing to the calcareous earth, which is of that colour when separated from the water in the act of boiling. The salt manufactured at these springs, so much resembles the common white blown salt (only a little coarser) that I think it unnecessary to send you a specimen of it.

No. 20. Appears to be a white soft *clay stone* found in great abundance in the township of Camillus, Onondago county. In one place it underlays the soil for a large space, covered about a foot or more with mould.

No. 21. The *same substance* reduced to powder, mixed into a paste with water and dried. It remains yet to be determined

ed to what useful purposes in the arts this may be appropriated.

No. 22. A *white fossil substance* found in large quantities at the little falls on the Mohawk river.

No. 23. A *yellow mineral substance* found on the east side of the Cayuga lake near the water oozing out of the rocks and concreting to the sides of them. Used by the Indians as an emetic, and for the healing of sores.

No. 24. A beautiful *hexangular rock crystal*, transparent as the purest water, and perfectly polished on its surfaces.

No. 25. A pure *sand stone* as white as milk, found in great abundance in a place between Poughkeepsie and New York. It is easily broken to pieces, and much of it spontaneously reduced to sand, which is principally used on the floors of houses in its vicinity.

No. 26. A curious *annular stone*, in the shape of a circular ring, formed singly in the centre of a bed of blue clay. I think it will puzzle the geologist to account for the manner of its formation.

No. 27. Contains *sixty four specimens* of as many varieties of stones, to be found on the shore of Lake Ontario. Their uncommon beauty and variety of colour, shape, texture and disposition first engaged my attention ; and I sometimes amused myself with making selections from them as I was walking along the water. The pebbles beat upon the shores by the

surf,

surf, and worn in regular spherical shapes, are all a commixture of these varieties, and exhibit a singularly variegated appearance. An examination of this assemblage of specimens will perhaps afford you a complete idea of the mineralogy of that part of the country. To account for the intermixture of so many different kinds of stone, many of them essentially distinct from each other; I first imagined that they might have been conveyed from different and distant parts of the lake by the motion and turbulence of the waters; and this indeed seems to be partially the case. But when I came to inspect some parts of the banks I found all that variety interspersed in great numbers among the clay of which they were composed. This is especially true of that part of the shore on which the garrison of Oswego stands. It is here sixty or seventy feet high, almost perpendicular, consisting of clay, resting on a solid basis of rock, nearly level with the surface of the water, where it exhibits a shattered appearance. Now it is almost impossible to believe that so great a variety of stones should be naturally formed, in one place and of the same species of earth. They must therefore have been conveyed there by some extraordinary means. I am inclined to believe that this may have been effected by some mighty convulsion of nature, such as an earthquake or eruption; and perhaps this vast lake may be considered as one of those great *fountains of deep* which were *broken up* when our earth was deluged with water, thereby producing that confusion and disorder in the composition of its surface, which evidently seems to exist.

One of the *banks* of the *Oswego river* about a mile from the lake is entirely composed of strata of *free stone*, which appear to be superior in texture and beauty to those found in New Jersey. These will furnish a cheap and elegant material for the stately buildings which we may anticipate in a few years to be erected in the *city of Oswego* lately founded under the auspices of our legislature.

*Albany, Sept. 2, 1799.*

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*An account of the deleterious effects of Mephitic Air, or marsh miasmata, experienced by three men, July 27, 1797. In a well, on the Boston pier; in a letter to the Rev. JOSEPH WILLARD, president of the university in Cambridge, and vice president of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. By Rev. JOHN LATHROP, D.D. A.A.S.*

THIS well, like that which was dug some years ago on Minot's T, a part of the same pier, commonly called, the Long Wharf, is wholly surrounded with salt water, against which it is secured with clay and strong boxes.

The workmen had advanced about 27 feet before they experienced any inconveniency from bad air.

The several strata, through which they passed for good water, were,

M

1 ft.

1st. About 15 feet, consisting of the materials of the pier.

2d. — 14 feet, consisting of black mud, clay, sand, and the heterogeneous substances which had been deposited by the sea.

3d. — 4 feet and a half, consisting of very black mud, intermixed with the unconsumed roots of marsh grass, shells and other marine productions.

After passing this stratum, the workmen began to bore.

4th. — 30 feet of light blue clay.

5th. — 23 feet of clay mixed with sand.

6th. — 7 feet of hard and dark blue clay.

7th. — 3 feet of clay, stones and slate.

On the last stratum the workmen used the drill, and having broke through the crust of slate, the water gushed up with great force, and rose to about 12 feet from the surface, where it has stood ever since.

Upon entering the third stratum, consisting of black mud, intermixed with the roots of marsh grass, shells, and other marine productions, the workmen perceived an uncommon foetid smell. Faintness and difficulty of breathing succeeded, and to so great a degree, that they left the well, and could not be persuaded to go down again.

Some hours after, a Mr. *Tileston*, the master workman, who was not present when the labourers experienced a difficulty of breathing,

breathing, and left the well, having occasion to measure the width at the bottom, in order to fix a curb, insisted on being let down. He had been at the bottom but a few minutes, before he was seen to fall, and remain without motion.

His condition, alarmed the other workmen, and one of them, whose name was *Bunting*, was let down with a small rope in his hand, to pass about the body of Mr. *Tileston*, in order to pull him up; but before *Bunting* was able to make the rope fast, he fell.

Although the danger was now known to be very great, the anxiety to save the two men, who were in a dying condition, was superior to the danger.

A Mr. *Hancock*, contrary to the advice of all present, went down, but no sooner reached the bottom, than he fell with the other two.

There were now three men, lying apparently dead on the bottom of the well.

A sea faring man, whose name is *Clarke*, came to the place, at that moment, and would have immediately gone down, had not Mr. *Jonatban Balch* (who furnished me with the materials for this communication) prevented him, until, by an experiment which he had tried on a like occasion, he might lessen the danger.

A common mat, such as merchants wrap about bales of goods, was fastened to a rope and let down. By working this  
mat

mat very quick up and down, the heavy mephitic air, was so mixed and diluted with the more pure air, in the upper part of the well, that the men who lay in a dying condition at the bottom, experienced the benefit. In a little time they showed appearances of life, by moving their limbs.

Mr. *Clarke* was then let down, and by taking one after another in his arms, he raised them from the horrible pit, in which they must have soon died, had not timely aid been afforded them.

The *stratum* of black mud, intermixed with the roots of grass, and the relics of the sea, twelve or fourteen feet below the present flats, is a curious article in natural history, and affords evidence, that the peninsula of Boston is now, very different in its dimensions, from what it was many ages ago.

With great esteem,

I am, Sir,

Your most humble servant,

JOHN LATHROP.

Rev. Dr. Willard.

*Fatal*

*Fatal effects of Lightning; in a letter to the Rev. JOSEPH WIL-  
LARD, president of the university in Cambridge, and vice presi-  
dent of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. By Rev.  
JOHN LATHROP, D.D. A. A. S.*

*Boston, July 1st, 1798.*

REV. SIR,

**I**N compliance with the request of the Academy, express-  
ed at the last meeting, that the several members would commu-  
nicate such cases of the effects of lightning, as may have come  
to their knowledge, I have the honor to communicate the  
only case which has happened in this town, so far as I can  
learn, in which life has been destroyed by a stroke of light-  
ning.

The account which I am about to give has been communi-  
cated to me by Mr. Benjamin Henderson. Mr. Henderson is  
now 72 years old, and as he was 12 at the time, he has a clear  
remembrance of the thunder storm, and of the effects.

He informs me that he then lived with his mother in the  
house which makes the north side of the arch, leading to the  
dwelling house of the late Jonathan Williams, Esq. There  
were in the room five gentlemen belonging to the general  
court, himself, his sister, and Deborah Stratton, the young per-  
son who was killed.

As the storm increased, this Deborah, a child of about 13  
years old, being intimidated, ran to one of the gentleman, who

fat

sat very near a window, and placed herself on the floor between his feet ; covering her head with the skirt of his coat. Mr. Henderson, who gives me the account, sat also on the floor, not more than two feet from the fatal spot.

The cloud came up in the west, and in the midst of the storm, there was a violent discharge of thunder, which burst off the casing of the window near which they sat, carrying pieces of the boards to the middle of the room, and filling the whole with a strong sulphureous smell.

As soon as the persons in the room were recovered from the first impression, they found the girl was dead. Mr. Henderson, who gives me the account, was for some time insensible of what had happened. His sister was also struck down. He tells me, he had no recollection of the *clap*, but as he came to his senses, he saw the girl dead, and found himself so injured that he could not stand. He was put to bed, and in the morning he found one of his arms was burnt and blistered ; and several days passed before he recovered the use of his limbs.

I cannot determine from any circumstances related whether the discharge was from the cloud, or from the earth. The casings of the window, indeed, were flung *into* the room, but it appears from careful observation, that splinters and light pieces of wood, were driven, at the time of explosion, in every direction from the place where a breach is made.

In the cellar, and directly under the place where the unfortunate child was sitting, there was an iron spit, the one end  
of

of which stood on the ground, and the other rested on the cellar wall.

The sharp end of the spit, which rested on the wall, was melted ; and directly over the spit, there was a small breach in the floor of the room.

If the charge was from the earth, the spit conducted it in safety, as far as it reached ; and as the electrical fluid is always condensed, and acts with most force, at going off, or entering the sharp point of a conductor ; it melted the end of the spit, as now described. The charge then took the nearest good conducting matter, which happened to be the unfortunate child, sitting on the floor, directly over the spit. In passing through the floor, it is probable the fluid diverged ; the greatest part passed through the child, and produced instant death. A smaller portion took Mr. Henderson's arm, and burned it ; the whole then took the iron hinges, and hooks of the window, and the lead in which the glass was set, and so passed away without leaving any other marks of its progress, except throwing a few bricks from the chimney ; or, if the charge was from the *cloud*, the effects and appearances would probably have been the same. This accident shows the danger of placing ourselves in the course, between different portions of conducting matter, in the time of a thunder shower.

The iron spit, standing by the wall, in the cellar, and the lead and iron work of the window, were good conductors. The explosion, whether from the ground, or from the cloud, found

found the unhappy child between those portions of conducting matter, and killed her in a moment.

It is remarkable, that the gentleman, between whose feet she sat, and with the skirt of whose coat she covered her face, received no hurt.

*August 14th.*

SINCE writing the above, another person, an inhabitant of Boston, has been killed by lightning.

On the tenth instant, five men were employed, by the selectmen of the town, to take a corpse, which had lain in a place unfrequented, until it became extremely offensive, and bury it on a small island in the harbour.

While digging the grave, they observed a cloud gathering nearly over them. As one of the men was at work in the grave, and two others were standing very near, there was an unexpected discharge of lightning, which struck to the ground the two men who had been standing by the grave, one on each side.

The man who was then *in* the grave, tells me, the clap seemed to him like the report of two or three cannon, in as quick succession as possible. He instantly looked up, and saw the two men lying on the ground. With such assistance as he, and the other men were able to give, one of the two, who were struck, was soon recovered ; in the other, whose name

was

was *James Dill*, no remains of life were seen ; his hat was torn very much, and was lying several feet from him. There was a breach in the skin of his head, from which the blood ran down his face. From the breach in his head there was a dusky appearance like that which is made by the burning of gun powder, down his neck and breast, and so (chiefly on the left side) to his feet.

Col. Revere, who in the discharge of his duty as coroner, examined the body, tells me, he observed the breach in the skin of the head, and also a white mark, like a *scratch*, down the neck ; which he thought, was over the jugular vein ; and on each side the white appearance, there were dusky streaks as described before.

The man who was killed, had on a pair of strong canvas trowsers, both legs of which were torn open ; the left in two or three places.

As the members of the academy wish to have every circumstance communicated, which carries evidence to show the direction of the charge, I will submit the following reasons to show, that in this case, the earth was *positive*, and the direction of the charge was upwards.

The morning of the day, and all the forenoon, was extremely hot, with the wind, very small, most of the time, from the west. After a short calm, about 12 o'clock, there was a light breeze from the east and south east, and in a short time clouds began to appear.

N

According

According to the theory, which I believe is now generally received, the east and south east wind having taken from the atmosphere, a portion of the electrical matter, the particles of vapour, which had been separated by it, approached nearer each other, and appeared in clouds. As the region of the atmosphere, in which the clouds were thus formed, had been deprived of electrical matter, by the moist south east wind, the electricity of the clouds formed in that portion of the atmosphere, must have been *negative*, until supplied with the fluid, from some other quarter. The cloud which we are now considering, I had observed with more than common attention from my house. It was *small*, but appeared very much condensed by the action of opposite winds.

The men who were on the island say, there had been no rain or thunder from the time of their landing; the fatal *clap* was the *first* discharge. As a portion of the electrical matter had been taken off, before and at the time when the cloud was forming, and the clap which killed the man was the *first*, there is reason to think the charge went from the spot on the island, where he stood, to the cloud, and so restored the *equilibrium*. Some circumstantial evidence, that the electricity of the earth was *positive*, perhaps may be gathered from the bursting open of the canvass trowsers, the tearing of the hat, and the breach in the man's head. The electrical fluid passing from the earth, directly under the man, tore asunder the dry linen trowsers, which were open at the bottom, and tight at the top. The hat also, being of wool, and dry, was a bad conductor. It gave some obstruction to the passing fluid, and was therefore

torn in pieces, and driven to some distance. This resistance might also give such a direction to the fluid, as to break the skin; a thing not common even where strokes of lightning have been fatal. But whether the thoughts now suggested carry any evidence to prove that the electricity of the earth, in the case we have been considering, was positive, or not, I hope others who have given more attention to studies of this sort than I have been able to, will be led to make such communications as shall serve to illustrate this interesting branch of natural philosophy.

With great respect and esteem,

I am, Sir,

Your most obedient,

And humble servant,

JOHN LATHROP.

Rev. Dr. Willard.

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*An account of the effects of Lightning on the house of JONATHAN MASON, Esq. in Boston. In a letter to the Rev. JOSEPH WILLARD, D.D. L.L.D. and vice president of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. By Rev. JOHN LATHROP, D.D.*

SIR,

ABOUT 2 o'clock, P. M. on Wednesday the 23d of May, a cloud, which had been several hours collecting in the west and north, came up with a brisk wind and heavy claps  
of

of thunder. Soon after the rain began to fall, the wind veered to the north, and brought over a very thick cloud, which had been collected in that quarter. The rain now came in torrents, mingled with hail and fire.

A few minutes after 2 o'clock, a discharge of lightning struck a ship at the Long Wharf, which shivered one of the masts to pieces. Another discharge struck the house of Jonathan Mason, Esq. in Marlborough street, and as the effects are somewhat curious, I beg leave to relate them. The house is of brick, three stories high, facing the street to the west, with a new end of wood at the north. It is furnished with a good conductor, fastened to a chimney, and passing down the north end by the brick wall. The whole charge of lightning passed down the conductor, without any injury, except loosening two or three of the iron staples, with which the conductor was fastened, until it came to about 10 feet from the ground. The charge then divided in the following manner: A part passed down the conductor, splitting upon the small trunk or box, which enclosed it, near the ground; but as the earth was not sufficiently wet to carry off the charge, there was an explosion, which burst through the cellar wall. The cellar door, which was shut, was very near the place where the lightning burst through the wall. The iron ring of this door attracted a part, or the whole of the lightning, which entered the cellar at this place, and by the nails sent it out again into the open air, ripping off the wood on the outside of the door, where the nails were clinched.

We

We are now to follow a portion of the charge which flew off from the conductor, and entered the new part of the house, at about eighteen inches from the conductor, and about ten feet from the ground.

In the inside of the room, directly against the spot where the lightning tore off the clapboards and entered the house, three or four long and slender pieces of iron are driven far into the wood work, to which the machinery for the house bells is fixed. From this centre, the wires are carried into the different rooms. I will now relate the effects of the lightning, as they are to be seen in the different rooms. A part of the charge was received by the wire, which leads from the above-mentioned centre, directly to the kitchen. This portion of the fluid passed through three partitions of wood and plastering, without any damage, until it reached the kitchen. The house keeper, who was at the time near the kitchen door, says, the first she perceived was the ringing of all the bells, and at that instant, she saw a crinkling of fire about the last bell; as there are four in a line, and connected by the same wire; and in an instant the explosion from that bell, was such as deprived her of her strength, and had she not held by the door, she must have fallen. This discharge from the bell, as there was no good conductor near, struck a number of earthen dishes from the shelves, and passing through a small opening at the bottom of the dresser, burst into the cellar, tearing off the lath and plastering, which were carried to a considerable distance.

Another

Another portion of the fluid was received by the wire, which leads from the same centre, through the north front room, to the great entry. Upon entering the entry, the wire was melted, and falling on a dry mat on the floor, set it on fire. This portion of the charge losing its conductor, was attracted by the lower hinge of the front door, and conveyed out by the nails, as in the case of the cellar door abovementioned. Another part of the charge was carried from the same place of entering, by a wire, which passed through the north front room, across the great entry, and along the cornice of the south front room, then turning at a right angle, along the cornice on the south, to the crank and bell cord by the fire place.

The portion of fluid, which took this direction, melted the wire soon after it entered the south room. It then took the curtain rod of the window nearest the front entry, and as it had no good conductor from the curtain rod, there was probably an explosion, for the curtain was set on fire, with the cornice, and the wood work about the window. A large looking glass, which hung between the windows, was broken; part of the charge then took the remaining part of the broken wire, and followed it round to the fire place; but as the cord which hung down with the tassel, made a bad conductor, the charge flew off from the wire opposite to the corner of a large picture of president Washington, which hung over the breastwork, made a small opening from the back through to the gilding, ran down the side gilding to the bottom, leaving a dusky mark, and from the picture, passed down to the small opening  
between

between the breastwork and the marble mantle piece, entered the chimney and went off.

It may be a question, why the whole charge did not go down the conductor to the earth ?

I imagine the rod did not enter sufficiently deep into the ground. From its explosion through the cellar wall, it is evident the earth was not sufficiently wet to carry it easily off. Meeting with an obstruction in its direct course, it sought another ; and the irons for the bell machinery, abovementioned, afforded the most ready conducting matter. The water also, which fell in a torrent, rendered the passage of the lightning easy, from the conductor to the part of the house where it entered.

With two observations I will finish this account, which I fear is too long.

The first is, that the part of the rod which enters the ground, should go deep enough to be always in moist earth, and that it should turn *from* the building. Had these things been attended to, it is probable there would have been no explosion into the cellar from the foot of the rod.

The other is, that great care should be taken not to have any good conducting matter *near* the rod. The iron machinery for house bells, being about eighteen inches from the conducting rod, no doubt, attracted that portion of the charge, which entered the house, and produced the effects which have been

been related. Happily for the family, none of them were essentially injured. Mrs. Joy, who was in the chamber, over the place where the lightning entered, was pressed down, as with a heavy weight, and experienced a considerable degree of numbness till the next day.

With great affection and esteem,

I am, Sir,

Your most obedient humble servant,

JOHN LATHROP.

*Rev. President Willard.*

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*Observations on Electricity, and an improved mode of constructing Lightning Rods. In a letter, from the Hon. LOAMMI BALDWIN, F.A.A. to the Rev. JOSEPH WILLARD, D.D. L.L.D. vice president of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.*

*Woburn, Jan. 25, 1797.*

SIR,

THE partial effects of the electrical rods, which have been erected for the protection of buildings, &c. have led me to think, that they are not upon the best construction, especially those that terminate in one point

The philosophy of electricity seems to be enveloped in much obscurity. Electrics and non electrics exist in nature ;  
positive

positive and negative, progress and direction are properties not without their evidence, yet want explanation.

From the experiments and observations, which I have made, I am inclined to think, that upon the sudden assemblage of the clouds, in the time of a thunderstorm, the electrical fluid is excited and disposed, unequally, in *strata*, at different altitudes, which are continually varying in their situation, according as the explosions of the lightning shift the power of attraction; and it is highly probable, that there are, at those times, *strata* of non conducting atmosphere, intervening between other *strata* differently affected. Now if this be really the case, and the height of the points of the rod do not happen to correspond with the level of the *stratum* affected, the use of the rod will in a great measure be lost.

It is a well known fact, that the electrical fluid enters and escapes by points and angles more readily than by spherical terminations.

From these circumstances I think it must appear, that an electrical rod, prepared like the sample which accompanies this paper, would be better adapted to equalize the fluid than the common cylindrical rods in use; for the infinity of points, or rather the continuation of them from the bottom to the top of the rod, provides for the entrance or escape of the fluid of any *stratum*, however affected, at any level, at or below the summit points; which, I think, must be considered an additional advantage; at any rate, such a rod will answer

as well as the other kind. If gentlemen would make this addition, when they erect any new rod; the effect would soon be known, and it is my opinion that a rod might be denticulated in the manner proposed, at less expense than square bars could be reduced into a cylindrical form.

A rod, upon these principles, may be prepared in the following manner. Take a number of square bars of iron, as they come to our market, of about an inch in thickness, and connect them together by a scarfed, or a halved joint at the ends, and secured with a screw. When a sufficient number of bars are thus connected to make the height intended (which should always be as high as the rod can possibly be sustained) then take them afunder, at the joints, and place each single bar in succession, on a blacksmith's vice, with the jaws about half an inch apart, for one angle of the bar to rest between, without bruising, while the workman proceeds, with a cold chissel, well prepared, to raise a barb, at the distance of every inch, or half inch, along the upper corner or angle of the bar, as it lays in the vice, and when that corner is done, bring up another angle, in the same position, and so proceed, until the whole are finished.

Rods upon this construction may terminate with three points; but I should prefer a light star, or glory, at the top of the rod, and the lower end sunk pretty deep into the earth, perhaps to the level of the springs of water, and the hole filled up with charcoal about the rod.

Perhaps, in some particular states of the atmosphere, such a rod might assist in restoring the equilibrium of the fluid among the *strata* differently affected, by its entering at one place in the rod, and escaping at another, while the earth remained neutral.

If you think, that any thing can be collected from these hints to improve the electrical rod, I am willing they should be communicated to the American Academy of Arts and Sciences for their consideration.

I am with much respect, Sir,

Your most obedient servant,

LOAMMI BALDWIN.

*Rev. Joseph Willard, D.D. L.L.D.*

*Vice President of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.*

*Woburn, Jan. 25, 1797.*

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*Remarks on the Hon. LOAMMI BALDWIN's proposed improvement in Lightning Rods, in a letter from AARON PUTNAM, Esq. to the Rev. JEDIDIAH MORSE, D.D. A.A.S.*

REV. SIR,

AGREEABLY to your request, I now send you the few remarks I made the last summer, upon the communication of the Hon. L. Baldwin, Esq. on electrical rods, published by order of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, in the  
Columbian

Columbian Centinel, 11th August, 1798. Mr. Baldwin has very long and deservedly held a high rank in the scientific part of society; and no one, I presume, has a higher opinion of him as a man and a philosopher, than myself; and it is with diffidence I observe, that in my opinion, he has erred in his philanthropic intentions of rendering electrical conductors more beneficial to mankind. As they have been used, they certainly have not afforded complete protection; but from what cause they have failed, remains to be determined.

From a variety of experiments, which I have made on the subject, I am led to conceive of the matter relating both to the conductors, and the formation or *strata* of the clouds, in a different point of view from Mr. Baldwin.

In the first place, I conceive heat to be the most subtle of all fluids; and of course the grand *primum mobile*; that heat has the power of dissolving or liquifying air; the air of dissolving water (the same as water has of dissolving salt or sugar) in such manner as to render it invisible to human sight; therefore the greater the quantity of heat operating on the air, the larger the quantity of water that air will dissolve and render invisible. But apply any thing cold in contact with this warm air, thus filled with watery particles, and the air within the sphere of the cold body, will immediately let fall the water. Of this, we have daily proofs in warm weather, when we bring into a room, where the air is in the abovementioned state, a vessel filled with cold water, a cold stone, or any substance

stance colder than the air, we observe them sweat, as the common expression is, which is nothing more than the falling of the water contained in the surrounding air, brought within the sphere of the cold body ; thus the watery particles of the breath, in warm weather, are instantly dissolved on respiration ; but in cold weather, they are visible, and in extreme cold, fall in gross particles on the surrounding objects.

After several days of summer's heat, a large space of air being in this heated state, clearly establishes this hypothesis, and shews us the cause of thunder storms. A column of cold air bursting into the rarified space, deprives the warm air of the power to sustain the water before invisible ; condensation takes place, which terminates in rain. Dry air, I conceive, to be a non conductor, or at least a very bad one, and that air combined with a portion of water, may be rendered a very poor one, by the application of heat sufficient to dissolve that water ; but when the air in a given space, is deprived of heat by a column of cold air coming in contact, and the watery particles condensed, they become a conductor, and of course will receive the electrical fluid. Thus this column of cold air generating moisture, as above stated, passes through a region of heated or dry air, and by it is in a degree insulated ; and at the same time receives the small portion of electrical fluid contained therein. A cloud thus formed has a sphere, and within that sphere, certain *strata* differently charged at different times, but they appear to me of so short duration, as to preclude the necessity

necessity of providing a remedy for them ; for we witness the lightning constantly passing from one part of the cloud to the other, and thereby producing an equilibrium.

The electrical fluid being thus contained within the sphere of the cloud, there is an emptying or attractive distance, which is larger than the striking distance ; and a conductor brought within that attractive distance of the sphere, would empty the whole cloud. This being the case, it appears to me a great mistake to place rods for conductors, high in the air, above the object we wish to protect, for it is well known that no object will be so soon stricken as the conductor.

Under these circumstances, we must have a strong propensity for emptying clouds, to run our conductor so high in the air as to empty the highest clouds that should pass, and thereby expose them to the striking distance, when nine out of ten would pass us, and not even come within attractive or emptying distance, provided our conductors were placed but a small height above the object we wish to protect. The only reason I conceive, that can be offered in favour of carrying conductors high in the air, is to meet and empty the cloud sooner ; but this appears to me an inaccurate mode of reasoning ; for if ever a conductor fails to afford protection, it is when a cloud highly charged, approaches so rapidly upon the point, that before there is time for it to be emptied, the point is brought within striking distance, and is then unable to carry off the quantity thrown upon it ; therefore, if the point is placed high  
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in the air, for the sake of attracting it, certainly it is in the same ratio exposed to be stricken.

From the preceding observations, I conclude, that a point eighteen *inches* above the highest object we wish to protect, would be much more safe than one of eighteen *feet*. As to the multiplicity of points, I believe them rather prejudicial than otherwise. The Hon. Mr. Baldwin observes, "it is a well known fact that electrical fluid enters and passes off by points and angles, more readily than by spherical terminations." I conceive the electrical fluid passing a rod properly prepared, to be the same, in a degree, as water passing a tube. For experiment, fix a tube with three or more branches, and pour water into each of the branches, at the same time, and you will perceive a very considerable obstruction, where they unite in the common stock, or large tube, from the different directions of the branches. This I think will apply to the electrical fluid; and I have been confirmed in the opinion, from repeated experiments, that a conductor with one point properly fixed, would empty an electrical battery more readily than one with three or four.

I have two other objections to the rod proposed by Mr. Baldwin. First, Provided this rod, filled with points, from top to bottom, should be stricken or overcharged, the electrical fluid would pass off by these points in a variety of directions, much more readily, and of consequence, be more liable to attach itself to surrounding objects, than if the rod were either round or square.

Second.

Second. When the electrical fluid passes from the earth upwards. The earth, from its composition, is infinitely more liable to be charged unequally in *strata*, than the air or clouds. When the lightning strikes, as we term it, it is as often from the earth upwards to the cloud, as from the cloud to the earth; although I conceive this to be a case that will very seldom happen to a rod properly fixed, yet such instances may occur; and most certainly the variety of points terminating in so many directions would be more dangerous, as before observed, than a rod with one point only.

I am sensible, some of the ideas I have here expressed, differ from the generally received opinions on the subject. I however think they can be supported. If they afford you any satisfaction, it will much gratify your very sincere friend,

AARON PUTNAM.

Rev. Dr. Jedidiah Morse.

Charlestown, Jan. 12th, 1799.

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*Remarks on a Natural Phosphorus.* By Doctor SOLOMON DROWN.

Providence, Dec. 30th, 1786.

SIR,

AS the following relation of a phenomenon, observed at a place on Hofack river, near its junction with the Hudson, by Mr. Jeremiah F. Jenkins, a reputable merchant of this town;

town ; has been thought by several gentlemen here, worth communicating to the American Academy. I was led by the advice of my ingenious friend, Mr. Benjamin West, to address it to you.

Some time last October, Mr. Jenkins was at his friend's house, at *Schaghticook*, on the *Hosack* ; and going with him into his store, in the evening, they discovered on the floor, the appearance of scattered fire, which at first was supposed to be rotten wood ; but on stooping down, it had a more luminous appearance. This induced Mr. Jenkins to put his finger on a small piece, which he drew along on the floor, a lucid train succeeding, and retaining its brightness. He then rubbed it in a circular manner, to about the size of a crown, and left it to call some persons from the house adjoining, to see this extraordinary appearance.

On returning with the company, he undertook to shew them the effect of rubbing another piece, about the size of a parsnip seed ; and proceeding as before, till it was about double the surface mentioned (the brightness as in the first experiment) it suddenly flashed into a blaze, set the floor on fire, and had the effect of the most powerful caustic on his finger ; which, through extreme pain, being rubbed against his thumb, affected it equally, both being excessively burned. In this disagreeable situation, he attempted to extinguish the fire, by plunging his hand into a basin of water repeatedly, holding it under once fifteen or twenty minutes ; during the most of which time, the finger

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and thumb were free from pain ; yet when exposed again to the air, the fiery appearance and pain returned. He was then led to wash them in water, with plenty of soft soap,\* which extinguished the lucid appearance, though the pain continued.

The attempt to extinguish the fire on the floor was attended with the same difficulty ; nor was the flashing suppressed till after repeated ablutions. He observes that the blaze had the appearance and smell of burning sulphur. Two pieces being preserved, one in paper, the other in a silver salt celler, till next day, the first, on examination, appearing partly dissolved, was wrapped in a fresh piece of paper, and put in a small close trunk. On taking it out to examine again, it unexpectedly flashed into a blaze, and was consumed with the paper. The other piece, he brought with him in a small snuff box. This retained its luminous appearance seven or eight nights without friction, a lucid vapour arising from it on opening the box.

Mr. Jenkins conjectured, that it might have been conveyed into the store from the neighbouring bank of the river, by adhering to the foot of some person ; and to strengthen this supposition, mentions the report of boys' having observed something like fire flashing from the bank, when fishing in the evening.

The box herewith enclosed, contains only a very small piece of this matter adhering to one side. When last examined, it had not so far lost its properties, but that a piece, the size of a  
2 pin's

\* Query, whether the alkaline salt of the soap did not neutralize the phosphoric acid, in this natural production?

pin's head, rubbed on smooth paper, would exhibit a luminous appearance in the dark.

We are sorry, that the quantity brought was not sufficient to be subjected to processes for ascertaining its component parts. May they not be a calcareous earth, for the basis, and vitriolic acid, united with phlogiston, into a highly inflammable sulphur?

Should the vitriolic acid be procurable from this substance, it might well pay the researches of those, who shall effect the discovery of its bed.

Happy, if I can, by any means, conduce to the advancement of American science,

I am, with the greatest respect, Sir,

Your most obedient humble servant,

SOLOMON DROWN.

*Rev. S. Williams, L.L.D.*

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*Observations upon the art of extracting Marine Salt from sea water, by evaporation, produced by the sun's heat ; with a description of the works, and the several processes used in preparing Medicinal Salts, and Magnesia Alba. By JAMES THACHER, M.D. F.A.A.*

EVERY essay having in view the advancement of our manufactories, and encouraging the efforts of industry, will, it is presumed, receive the approbation of every class and description

scription of society. From this source, results that substantial advantage, to realize which, the public has an undoubted claim upon the energy and exertions of individual citizens. An enterprise, which associates private emolument with general interest, may with peculiar propriety be recommended to the consideration of the community.

While then the active labourer is employed in exploring the bowels of the earth for riches, while the adventurous seaman hazards his safety upon the stormy billows, traversing the mighty deep in pursuit of treasure, shall we not reach forth our hands to receive that bounty of providence, which constantly flows at our shores, and daily washes the borders of our farms?

These preliminary remarks have reference to the art of extracting common salt from sea water by evaporation, which till within a short period was unknown among the inhabitants of this country, and even at this time a knowledge of the business is confined almost exclusively to the shores of Cape Cod.

A want of particular information respecting this productive branch of manufacture, has hitherto prevented its being more extensively beneficial. An apology therefore for this communication, were it not for its imperfections, would be unnecessary. Let it however be observed, that in endeavouring to assist the uninformed artist, I am not solicitous to vie with those who are in pursuit of literary fame.

The method of preparing and refining salt in the salterns in different parts of Europe, would not comport with the circumstances

stances of our country. The superior advantages of our procedure consists in dissipating the water without the expense of fuel, the furnace and other apparatus for boiling. "The fuel alone expended in some of their salterns, costs more than two thirds the value of the salt." Omitting therefore any particular detail respecting the processes used in the preparation of salt in other parts of the world, the subsequent observations will relate entirely to the successful experiments, which commenced with, and are now prosecuted by the industrious inhabitants of Cape Cod.

During the distressful period of our revolutionary war, Mr. John Sears, with two or three associates, were the first who commenced at Dennis the manufacture of salt by evaporation; their unpromising attempts were deemed chimerical; but by a commendable perseverance, they repelled the obloquy of the incredulous, and in due season realized a profit exceeding their most sanguine expectations.

The undertaking has since been greatly improved, and become an establishment meriting public consideration, and as respects the peculiar circumstances of the inhabitants upon the Cape, may be viewed as an acquisition of inestimable value.

The works now erected in the county of Barnstable, from their advantageous situation and extent, are calculated to produce annually an immense quantity both of marine and glauber salt; the particular amount cannot at present be ascertained. One man in the town of Yarmouth, has upon his farm

farm a valuable set of works, consisting of 130,000 superficial feet ; the annual produce of which he estimates at upwards of 520 hogsheds of marine, besides a due proportion of glauber salt, amounting to about nine tons. This gentleman, with many others, are now augmenting their works in the confident expectation of realizing a clear profit from 25 to 35 per cent. Some works possessing peculiar advantage in point of situation, have yielded a greater profit ; and proprietors in general calculate upon defraying the expense of their works in four or five years. The average produce, is for every 1000 superficial feet, 33 bushels of marine, and 150 lbs. glauber salts. The quality of the salt is equal to any imported. It weighs 80 lbs. per bushel, and is decidedly superior in point of strength to foreign salt, if in this respect we except that which is made during the extreme heat of July and August, which in consequence of a hasty evaporation, retains a portion of the bittern. This weakens the salt, makes it more soluble, and less proper for domestic use than that manufactured in the more temperate months. Liverpool salt is so strongly impregnated with lime, that fish cured with it have the appearance of being *whitewashed*, which greatly injures their market.\* Our works are remarkably well adapted to free the salt from this and other impurities ; and it is from the separation of this substance, that our salt acquires its peculiar whiteness and purity. Considering the duty imposed on foreign salt, the freight

\* For some of these particulars, I am indebted to the information and intelligence of the Reverend Mr. Briggs of Chatham.

freight and charges of that bulky commodity, our manufactories can even in time of peace afford to undersell our importers.

When therefore, our enterprise shall have progressed to that desirable extent to which the importance of the object, and the success of our experiments encourage us to hope, we may exhibit upon our shores a source of wealth little inferior to the celebrated salt mine of Cracow.\*

John Sears and Hallet Kelly, late of Dennis, have both obtained patents for their different plans of constructing the works, which are held in competition, nor has experience satisfactorily decided, which possesses the strongest claim to preference.† Their respective advantages, however, will appear from the particular description which follows.

In the first place a commodious situation near the shore should be made choice of, where the rays of the sun can fall with the greatest possible effect; and to render this more efficient, the vats should be built in a line extending from east to west. Conformably to Sears' plan, a vat 16 feet wide is to be erected on stands of cedar rails or other small timber, at a convenient

\* Some of the salt mines are of amazing magnitude, the single mine of Cracow in Poland, is computed to hold salt enough to supply the whole world for many thousand years. There are houses, chapels, &c. under ground all built of salt, or the salt stones. The fossil is cut and turned into pillars, altars, crucifixes, images, &c. Oftentimes it is naturally crystallized into very curious figures. Masses are sometimes brought up weighing from 20 to 30 cwt. *Neumann's Chem. Vol. 1. page 330.*

† Sears' patent is contested upon the principle of his not being the original inventor, which question is now pending before the Circuit Court for decision.

convenient height from the ground, care being taken to place a double board under every stand to prevent their settling. The frame is commonly formed of pine, hemlock or other joist. The largest or side timbers being 4 by 5 inches, and the middle ones 3 by 4. The floor is made of good seasoned boards, nailed upon this frame. A piece of plank, about six inches in width, is placed upon its edge on the top of the outside timber, resting upon the ends of the floor boards, and firmly secured by upright pieces, trundled on the outside, at proper distances from each other, in the form of dovetail; but an improvement in this method is, that the gunwale plank should supply the place of the side timber, having a groove within one inch of its lower edge, into which the ends of the floor boards are inserted. This building must be divided by plank partitions into three apartments; the water room being the largest, must occupy two thirds of the whole; the pickle room takes up two thirds of the remainder, and the residue is assigned for the salt room.

The two last rooms must fall each a few inches below the one immediately preceding, for the convenience of drawing off the liquor.

It is a point of importance, that the floor of the salt room in particular, be perfectly tight; to this end, none but the best of seasoned boards, planed on one side, and entirely clear of sap, and loose knots should be used. The joints, especially under the gunwale, should be caulked and payed. The covers

ers or roofs should be made as light as possible ; they must, however, effectually secure the vats from rain, as that would greatly injure the process, by diluting the pickle, and impeding the evaporation. They are in the form of the common pitched roof with gable ends. They should be ten feet in width, so that a vat one hundred feet long, will require ten covers. The two pieces of cross joist, which support the roofs, are furnished with shivers, or small wheels of cast iron, or hard wood, and also side shivers, placed horizontally, to accelerate their motion. Small strips of plank should be extended from the vats, supported by proper stands, for the purpose of rolling off the covers. The roofs have usually been covered with ordinary boards, except those over the salt room, which we are advised to shingle ; but a better method unquestionably is, instead of boards, to cover the frames with shingles nailed upon small rafters. In either case I would urge the expediency of painting the roofs white, for the double purpose of preserving the wood, and its power of increasing the reflection of solar heat.

The invention of the late Hallet Kelly, comes next under consideration ; he directs the vats to be made in the form of a parallelogram, 20 by 40 feet ; two of these join together at their angles, and communicate by a spout. At the angular point is erected a perpendicular post of a proper height, upon the top of which is balanced a large cross beam, firmly braced ; the covers upon this plan have hipped roofs, are twenty

feet square, being a pair to each vat, and suspended one at each end of this beam; may be compared to a pair of brass scales inverted with their beam placed upon a fulcrum. The post is furnished with a pivot at the bottom, turns off in the manner of a crane, and the covers then occupy the interval between the two vats. Thus a line of works may be erected of an indefinite length in zig zag form, with a crane post standing alternately between every vat, and the whole to be connected by spouts.

It will at first view be perceived, that this piece of machinery is calculated to turn with great ease and celerity, and it is conceded that a greater extent of works can be covered and uncovered in a given time upon this, than the former plan; but it is objected by the advocates of Sear's method, that the suspended weight will derange the post, and repairs become frequently requisite; that they do not so effectually secure the vats from rain, and that they occupy more ground than the others. Some gentlemen, however, in whose hands both methods have passed the test of experience, assure me, that Kelly's invention deserves the preference, although the difference in the cost is estimated at 7 per cent. In fact the works upon either plan are completely under controul, and require very little manual aid to cover them, when rain is expected.

Contiguous to the vats, it is necessary to erect a mill and pump for every 20,000 superficial feet of works, to complete the apparatus. The pump is placed in a small cistern,

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funk to the level of the tide water, from which is carried a subterraneous pipe, towards low water mark. A small wind-mill, with canvass sails, being now connected with the pump, the water is thrown into spouts, and conveyed to every part of the works, as occasion may require. Having now completed the machinery, and brought the proprietor to that stage of the business in which he may anticipate his compensation; it is next incumbent upon me to describe particularly the process, by which the different kinds of salt are usually obtained. In doing this, I shall have regard to the order in which the occurrences will successively result.

The water being pumped into the water room, immediately after being finished, that the work may swell and become tight, should continue there until a considerable part of it has evaporated, and the residue acquired the strength and sharpness of brine. The plugs are then to be withdrawn from the partition, and the liquor let into the pickle room. The length of time required for its continuance in the first room, must evidently depend upon the degree of heat to which it has been exposed; but for the precise time of drawing the liquor out of the pickle room, we have a more correct criterion; for in this stage of the process, a calcareous earth or lime begins to appear upon the surface, and soon subsides to the bottom in the form of a white earthy powder. Soon after this occurrence, the liquor being almost fully saturated with salt, exhibits a saline pellicle upon its surface; and in a dry day small crystals begin to form, which immediately concrete into corns, resembling

bling hail, and precipitate to the bottom. The subsidence of the lime, therefore, and the appearance of granulated salt, mark the point of time, when the pickle should be drawn into the salt room. In this last stage of the process, the liquor from further evaporation becomes highly concentrated, and the salt, accumulating upon the floor, assumes its natural crystalline form.

The salt should remain in the salt room, till a large quantity is procured, and more pickle added to it occasionally. When removed into the store house, should be placed upon a shelving floor, that the saline liquor may be entirely drained from it.

The next subject that should arrest our attention, is the preparation of the two kinds of medicinal salt procured at the works. The first is obtained in the form of large beautiful crystals, scarcely distinguishable from the genuine sal mirabile, or glauber salt, and is found to be equal in quality to the best imported salts used in medicine. The manufacture of this valuable article is progressing to such extent and perfection, as to meet the demand of the United States, and render importation altogether unnecessary. It has also become an article of some consequence in commerce. Many tons of it are annually exported to the East and West Indies, where I learn it comes to a ready and profitable market. Some objections have been made to this salt, on account of the large size of its crystals; but this circumstance does not affect its medicinal virtues, and its repute in medicine has the sanction of experience.

This

This salt is procured during the cold weather in winter, from the pickle or brine in its concentrated state, and the same result will ensue, whether we have recourse to the process antecedent or subsequent to the crystallization of the sea salt. Having procured a quantity of pickle, sufficiently inspissated in the salt, it is to be exposed to the cold weather in the vats during the winter, from the effects of which the salt will be found to shoot into irregular crystals, and precipitate to the bottom. In order to purify this salt, it must be taken out, put into a copper boiler, being first half filled with warm fresh water, with which the salt is to be dissolved and boiled for some time. The solution, after standing an hour or two in a wooden vessel for the faeces to subside, should be poured off from the sediment into coolers, where the salt will immediately form into perfect crystals; should the salt not be quite pure, nor assume the form of regular crystals, it may be redissolved, and the operation repeated. After the crystallization of both marine salt and sal glauber, there remains upon the floor of the salt room a saline bitter liquor, called mother, lye or bittern. This liquor has commonly been thrown away as useless; but the workmen should be apprised that it will yield both a neutral salt and magnesia alba. If this bittern be set by in a cold place for sometime in a leaden vessel, a quantity of glauber salt, before mentioned, will shoot; and if the remainder of the bittern be gently evaporated farther, a fresh quantity of the same kind of salt will appear; but if the bittern be hastily evaporated  
by

by boiling, and set by to cool, salt will be produced in the form of fine delicate needle point crystals; having, when taken out of the liquid, the appearance of snow. This is no other than the genuine bitter cathartic salt of Epsom, so called from the mineral spring of Epsom, where it was originally discovered by Dr. Grew. Although this and the glauber salt are in their chymical properties essentially dissimilar, they are in medicinal virtues nearly allied, and often prescribed indiscriminately. Another article in the preparation of which some attempts have been made at the works on the Cape, is magnesia alba. The specimens of it, which I have inspected, are manifestly inferior to English magnesia. "That prepared directly from the bittern, is by no means equal in purity to that produced from Epsom salt."

Our workmen are confessedly unacquainted with the most eligible method of obtaining it in genuine purity; nor can they have accurate ideas upon the subject, unless they possess some knowledge of the laws of chymical affinity, and the powers of elective attraction. Incidents influenced by these principles, although perfectly familiar to the mind of every chymical operator, would be considered by those not versed in that science, as inexplicable phenomena. Referring to chymical writers for further information, it will suffice for our purpose to observe, that an acid and alkali possess opposite principles, and that a combination of the two, form a neutral compound. Epsom salt is precisely in this predicament, being  
formed

formed by a combination of an absorbent earth, or magnesia and the vitriolic acid. It is by the decomposition of Epsom salt, or disunion of these constituent parts, that we obtain genuine magnesia. There is a diversity in the minutia of the process even in the hands of chymical operators; but since Mr. Henry, of Manchester, (England) has improved upon the process, and his magnesia having justly obtained celebrity and preference on account of its delicate whiteness and purity, his method should be recommended as most eligible for our imitation. The following is not essentially variant from Mr. Henry's process. "Take any quantity of Epsom salt, dissolve it in boiling water, and filter the solution. Dissolve also half the quantity of good pearl ash, and filter the solution. Both of these solutions ought to be somewhat diluted, and it will be proper to use twice the quantity of water, which would fairly dissolve the salts. Mix the two solutions when nearly cold, and stir them very well together. Let the mixture stand for some hours, until the precipitate has fallen to the bottom in form of a coarse gritty powder. Put the whole then into a clean copper kettle, under which a moderate fire is made. Stir the matter incessantly with a large wooden spatula, to prevent the powder from sticking to the bottom. As the mixture heats, the powder begins to lose its sandy appearance, and to increase greatly in quantity; so that though at first the mixture was quite thin, with only a small portion of sandy matter amongst it, before it has attained the boiling heat, it will be so thick that it can scarcely be stirred. When the grittiness is quite gone,

gone, the matter must be put upon a filtering cloth, and warm water poured upon it, till it runs insipid. The magnesia is then to be put upon chalk stones, which will absorb the greatest part of the moisture, and it may at last be fully dried in a stove.\*

In preparing this medicine, no point in the process is more important, than the repeated ablutions with soft pure water. The hardness of that from some wells and springs, renders it altogether improper for the purpose; but soft river or rain water, after being filtrated through a thick linen cloth, will answer equally as well as distilled water, recommended by some operators. The ablutions, however, should be repeated until the medicine be reduced to an impalpable powder, free from all grittiness or other impurities. The chalk stones employed for the purpose of drying, should be frequently cleaned and exposed to a moderate degree of heat, and the powder enclosed in sheets of white paper, and carefully dried before the fire or in a furnace.

Thus have I endeavoured to contribute my mite to the common interest; and however deficient my claim to general applause, I can repose with confidence in the hope of *candor* from the patrons of the Arts and Sciences.

Such is the interesting nature of this subject, that the propriety of a communication to the Academy of Arts and Sciences

\* See Encyclopedia, Motherby's Medical Dictionary, and Quincy's Dispensatory, 15th edition, Appendix.

ences has been suggested, and should it afford satisfaction to that learned and respectable Association, and in any measure aid the spirit of industry and enterprise in our country, I shall realize an ample reward.

I have the honor to subscribe myself, Gentlemen, with sentiments of profound respect, your most obedient

humble servant,

JAMES THACHER.

*Plymouth, August 16th, 1802.*

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*Process for making Cider, communicated in a letter from RICHARD PLATT, Esq. to Hon. JOHN ADAMS, L.L.D. President of the Academy.*

ALL late kinds of apples are best, for instance, Hughes's Crab of Virginia, Redstreak, and other sound, hard fruit.

That the operation may be conducted to the best advantage, the following rules must be strictly adhered to.

1. Select all immature and rotten apples, and put the choicest under cover from rain, as gathered from time to time, but exposed to sun and air, as much as possible to mature, until the season is so far advanced that the weather becomes cool and dry ; nights a little frosty, but not freezing

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hard.

hard. This will happen either at the latter end of October, or by the middle of November, and the later the better.

2. In grinding, a single tier of apples only is to be laid in the trough at once, to admit of equal pressure, and the wheel should not be heavy, as experience proves that bruising the apples for about six minutes (if thus arranged) is preferable to filling the trough, as is usual, and grinding them for a long while, till fine. According to this new mode, there is less juice from the first running, but abundantly richer, and the cheese being decompressed, and ground over, will give the residue for water cider.

3. The pumice must be put in hogheads with one head out, or hoghead tubs, and there remain at least 36 hours, then made into cheese with much good clean long straw, and pressed as usual. When the juice is taken out of the receiving tub, it must be strained through fine, close, and thick flannel, wet in the first instance with water, and frequently rinsed out to admit the cider to pass through.

4. The juice, thus prepared, goes into the cellar, where it is to remain and undergo operation, as follows, viz.

The casks being filled up to the bungs, when the fermentation comes briskly on, pour into the hoghead or pipe, a pint of best Coniac brandy, and continue to do the like, to each, five successive times, at the space of about six hours asunder, when it will be found, that the liquor is sufficiently fermented, and the more certainly to accomplish it, there must be at

hand, in jugs or demijohns, (as most easy to pour out of,) some new water cider, expressed from the contents of the original cheese, to pour in frequently, and fill up the casks. To be satisfactorily ascertained of due fermentation, a tap must be placed in the centre of the head of each cask and frequently pulled out. The eye and taste being the criterions to guide; whenever the first is delighted, and the second gratified, that is the moment for drawing off the cider, and *putting it in other casks*, (well cleaned and sweetened with Coniac brandy,) *which must stand perpendicular*, and have a pint of sweet oil poured on the top, thereby giving scope to gravitation, and effectually excluding all air, owing to which the cider will always be fine, and retain its sweetness for any length of time. One may commence drawing from a cask thus arranged, the day after the transposition, and continue till spring, when the residue will be fit for bottling. Casks should be made long and broadest at top, in order to give the best effect to the process, as in such case, there will be no danger of breaking the surface of the oil, which must happen in hogheads and pipes (unless a very large quantity is put on) owing to the expansion of surface as the fluid descends.

*Superiorities of this process.*

- 1st. Purest juice.
- 2d. Most perfect fermentation, fortified by the choice brandy.
- 3d. Fullest scope to gravitation.
- 4th. Total exclusion of air.

*Flushing, Long Island, October 21, 1803.*

*Account*

*Account of the resuscitation of a Mouse, found in a torpid state, enclosed in a fossil substance. Communicated in a letter from OLIVER FISKE, M.D. to Hon. ROBERT T. PAINE, A.A.F.*

*Worcester, March 15, 1803.*

SIR,

ENCLOSED you will receive an authenticated statement of the facts respecting the resuscitation of a mouse, which some time since was the subject of a communication to the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.

The testimony of Mr. Lincoln I could not obtain, as he now resides in some part of Vermont. Mrs. Andrews, and others of the family, can affirm all that is stated as having taken place in the house. Being personally acquainted with Mr. Andrews, who is one of our most respectable farmers, and a very correct man, I have not the least hesitation in subscribing my belief that the enclosed statement is correct.

I am, Sir, most respectfully, yours,

OLIVER FISKE.

Hon. ROBERT T. PAINE, Esq.

P. S. It may perhaps be inquired, why a matter so extraordinary was not sooner made public? It did not occur to Mr. Andrews, that a subject like this would be thought worthy of any particular notice. It was talked of among his neighbours, and almost forgotten. In October last, I had the first

first intimation of it ; and judging the fact to be important, as connected with the investigation of natural history, I applied to Mr. Andrews for the purpose of preserving it, and received from him the narration as enclosed. Being apprised of the use I intended to make of it, Mr. Andrews appeared cautious not to state any thing, which he could not clearly recollect.

O. F.

In the month of November, A. D. 1798, being at work with my hired man, *Luke Lincoln*, in removing some loamy sand from a ridge, which projected into a meadow, we discovered a substance of about the size of a goose egg, which from its colour and consistence, we at first supposed to be a piece of iron ore ; being as hard as dried mortar, or a lump of clay exposed to the sun. After several attempts, with the corner of a spade, we broke it, and to our surprise, found its *nucleus* was a *mouse*, rounded into a compact form, which, upon being removed from the shell, left a vacancy of the same dimensions as its size.

Recollecting to have heard of the refuscitation of *toads*, dug from the earth in a similar situation, and with a view of making a similar experiment, I carried the mouse, to all appearance dead, into the house, and placed it at a proper distance from the fire to obtain a gradual warmth. Some symptoms of returning life began soon to appear ; after a little struggling, in a few minutes it was restored to a perfect, living state, and ran off with activity.

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The mouse was of the species, called by the Count de Buffon, the *long tailed field mouse*, or with us, from its shape, colour and activity, the *deer mouse*.

There was no appearance that the ground ever had been broken up, nor was there any communication from this substance with the external air, or surrounding earth. In short, we saw no reason to doubt that the mouse had been immured for a century.

DAVID ANDREWS.

Signed in presence of

OLIVER FISKE.

Worcester, March 3d, 1803.

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*Account of an Inscribed Rock, at Dighton, in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, accompanied with a copy of the Inscription.*  
By JAMES WINTHROP, Esq.

IN Taunton river, about six miles below the town of Taunton, and within the limits of Dighton, is a rock containing an hieroglyphical inscription, which has long engaged the attention of the curious. The rock is on the eastern side of the river, upon the beach, and the inscribed side fronts about northwesterly. At the lowest tides the water retires from the foot of it, but at high water it is commonly covered. The longest side contains the inscription, and looks toward the channel of the river, and is the natural face of the rock, not smoothed

smoothed by art. It is on this side ten feet six inches long, and four feet two inches wide. The height is not so great, for the plane declines about thirty degrees from the perpendicular, so that the top of the rock is about two feet from a person standing by the base of the inscribed side. The other sides are shorter, and drawn to a point toward the shore, and are rough, as if large pieces had been broken off. The rock is of a dull reddish colour, which is common with the stones in that neighbourhood. Tradition informs us, that in the last century it stood as much as four rods from the river, but the inhabitants by digging round it, upon the foolish expectation of finding money, gave a passage to the tide.

It is agreed, on all hands, that the inscription is hieroglyphical; but for want of a perfect copy of it no satisfactory explanation has been given. A very imperfect copy was published early in this century in the philosophical transactions of the Royal Society of London. About twenty years ago a much more complete one was taken by the learned Professor Sewall, and is deposited in the Museum of the University in Cambridge. The lower part of the rock has been for a long time coated with moss and dirt, which concealed a considerable part of the inscription, and the shortness of the time, which the tide leaves it, makes it impossible, in the common method of copying, to be perfectly exact. This will abundantly account for any deficiency or imperfection in the copy taken by Professor Sewall, whose habitual accuracy and attention are well known.

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In the course of last August, upon the invitation of Judge Baylies, of Dighton, I went to view the rock, and take a copy of it. We were assisted by Rev. Mr. West, and Col. Edward Pope, both of New Bedford, and Rev. Mr. Smith, of Dighton. We spent one day in cleaning the face of the rock, tracing the character, and painting it black, beginning to work when the tide had fallen, so as not to be above our knees, and finished this operation when the water was about as deep, upon the flood. The next day, which was the fourteenth of August, the same company went to the rock, provided with a large sheet of paper, of the whole size of the inscription, and after retracing the character with paint, to cure any visciduity which the first paint might have contracted from the extreme heat of the weather, we applied the paper to the face of the rock, two of us managing the ends of the sheet, and the remainder, with towels, which we dipt into the river, pressing the paper upon the rock. This made the paper conform to the surface, and the paint presently began to appear through it. As soon as the paper was dry enough to be removed, we laid it upon the shore and completed the character with ink. Afterward I brought it home, and hanging it up to the light, traced the inscription with ink upon the other side of the paper, it having been reversed by the manner of copying from the rock. Having thus completed the copy, I had a large pentagraph made, which would expand thirteen feet, and by this means

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have made a fair draft, which I request the Academy to accept.\*

The inscription comes within eight inches of the bottom of the rock, and runs off at the top and ends, which makes it highly probable, that it has suffered considerably since it was first wrought. The character is generally about half an inch wide and very shallow, appearing as if it were made by some pointed instrument. In the copy I have marked it by parallel lines, and their distance shows the width of it upon the rock. The single circles represent dots, and where there are two concentric circles, they represent a ring or circle in the original work.

I have been more particular in describing the process of taking the copy, because I believe it to be the first time in which it has been adopted, and appears in practice to be simple and exact.

*Cambridge, Nov. 10, 1788.*

MEDICAL

\* Plate III, exhibits a reduced representation of Mr. Winthrop's original draft; accurately traced under his inspection.

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## M E D I C A L P A P E R S.

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*An Account of the Dissection of three Persons who died of the Malignant Epidemic that prevailed in Boston, in the Summer of 1798. By ISAAC RAND and JOHN WARREN, M.D. F.A.A.*

*Boston, September 8, 1798.*

THE great advantage to be derived to mankind from an inspection of the bodies of such as have died of so formidable an epidemic as the yellow fever, must be obvious to all. The following cases of dissection may throw some light on the nature of the disease as it prevails in this town, and may, we hope, be of some use in investigating the treatment best adapted to the purpose of checking or suppressing its destructive ravages.

The first case was of a man, who died on the sixth day from the seizure, and as no application was made to a physician till the first stage of the disease had nearly expired, the state of the organs may be considered in a great measure as the natural effect of the disease, undisturbed by art.

In the cavity of the chest, the lungs were remarkably affected ; they contained an uncommon quantity of dark blood in their vessels, which rendered them apparently more dense than

usual ;

usual ; the vesicles not being distended with air, and their substance consequently less compressible than usual. The posterior part of both lobes was extremely livid, and in the cavities of the thorax was contained a large portion of extravasated blood, firmly coagulated, to the quantity of eight or ten ounces, as nearly as could be estimated.

The pericardium contained as much as two or three ounces of fluid blood. The heart was of its usual size ; but the coronary veins were so distended with blood, as to exhibit the appearance of a most successful injection. In the cavity of the abdomen, the part most conspicuously morbid was the liver. This organ appeared to be much inflamed both on its convex and concave surface ; its substance was much indurated, and, on cutting, resembled in colour, a boiled liver. The gall bladder was contracted to a very small size, and contained not more than a quarter of an ounce of a thick, glutinous, and almost inspissated substance, resembling pitch. There were no marks of any considerable quantity of the bile having been lately contained in the sack, and none of the neighbouring parts had the least tinge that denoted its presence. On cutting through the ductus communis choledochus, no bile issued from the aperture ; the hepatic duct had also evidently for some time ceased to transmit its fluid from the liver. The stomach exhibited an enormous distension of its veins, especially round the pylorus, and had every mark of great inflammation. The intestines, in general, were in the same state with the stomach ; the smaller were considerably distended, and the larger contracted.

tracted. The spleen was uncommonly turgid, but in other respects in its natural state. The peritonæum on the under side of the diaphragm, and the pleura on the upper, bore the vestiges of inflammation, but no other parts of those membranes appeared to have been diseased.

The omentum was considerably thickened, and from the turgescence of its blood vessels, of a colour unusually dark. There were no appearances in the thoracic or abdominal viscera, of suppuration, nor was any degree of fetor perceived to arise from them; nor was there the least mark of incipient putrefaction in any part of the body. It may be proper to remark on this case, that in every stage of the disease, the discharges from the bowels were of the colour and consistence of water gruel, excepting a few evacuations of a matter similar to what is called the black vomit; and that this usually fatal symptom had also preceded the patient's death on the fourth day of the disease.

The second case. The subject of this dissection was the body of a person who died on the 12th day from the attack, with symptoms of the mixed kind; a remission of the disease had taken place, at the period usually critical, upon which, on the sixth day, a delirium ensued, and continued to the moment of fatal termination.

On opening the cranium, the brain was found to have its vessels astonishingly distended with blood, an ounce or two of serum was effused between the dura and pia mater. Under  
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the sagittal future, and by the sides of the longitudinal sinus, where the large veins terminate in that cavity, a lymphatic band, about an inch wide, extending nearly the whole length of the sinus, was formed by the coagulable lymph, which had been effused from the blood vessels, by the violence of the preceding inflammation, and this substance had served as a medium of adhesion, between the dura and pia mater in that part.

The lungs adhered very firmly to the pleura on the right side, and appeared posteriorly to have been much inflamed, and in some parts to be indurated in portions of about the size of a pigeon's egg. The left lobe adhered so firmly to the pleura, as not to be separated but by tearing the substance of the lungs which here appeared extremely diseased, and in a state of actual suppuration throughout its whole substance. The heart was in its natural state. The liver was much enlarged, and in a state that denoted a high degree of inflammation; the convex surface of the great lobe near the gall bladder exhibiting marks of extravasation, as if violently contused. The gall bladder was full of bile, and the ducts pervious.

The stomach was nearly in its natural state; but, on the inside, the surface of the villous coat was besmeared with a matter which seemed to be of the same nature with the black vomit, though nothing of this kind had been ejected in the course of the disease.

The duodenum was much inflamed for several inches from its commencement at the stomach, and the whole tract of the smaller

smaller intestines was in the same state. The urinary bladder was contracted to the size of a pullet's egg, and its inner coat appeared to have been in a high state of inflammation, the vessels having been distended to such a degree as to have suffered a rupture, and to have effused a quantity of blood into the cavity of this organ.

The state of the lungs in this subject was probably the consequence chiefly of a previous disease, independent of that which proved fatal. An affection of the lungs had some time existed, whilst the subject was, in other respects, in tolerable health, and in the pursuit of his business; so that a pulmonary consumption would, in all probability, have shortly put a period to his life, had the disease of which he died never overtaken him.

The third case. In this instance the disease terminated fatally on the fourth day.

Upon opening the thorax, the lungs discovered marks of inflammation, anteriorly, and were extremely gorged with blood, in the posterior part of their respective lobes.

The liver exhibited marks of inflammation, especially on its concave side and posterior part; its texture was altered, and of a very dense consistence. The gall bladder was completely obliterated, its coats having coalesced with the contiguous parts, so as to form with them one confused membranous substance. The stomach was externally, to appearance, in a natural state, but its inner coat was covered with that black coloured fluid, denominated the black vomit.

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The colon in some parts had been much inflamed, as well as part of the omentum, which was attached to this intestine.

It is worthy of remark, that in both the cases where the gall bladder had been diseased, and ceased to perform its functions, or if the liver had been rendered incapable of secreting the bile, the body became yellow before death ; whereas, in the other, where the bile was found in due quantity, this circumstance did not occur.

From the above dissections, which evinced a deficiency of secretion in the biliary organs, the indications of cure seemed to be directed towards a course, which might obviate the inflammation in general of the organs diseased, and open the excretory ducts of the liver, that the fluid might resume its course into the intestines.

It is with the highest degree of pleasure that we communicate to the public our hopes, that after proper evacuations, the use of calomel may be found to answer these important purposes. This medicine has been accordingly used with much success in fifteen patients, within eighteen days, all of whom, excepting one, have recovered, or have past the dangerous period. It has been given not in the usual doses, for the purpose of an evacuant by the intestines, but in small doses of one, two, or three grains, every hour or two, so as to produce a salivation as soon as possible ; with this view, from one hundred to two hundred and thirty grains of calomel have been given in the course of three or four days, commencing the use of it immediately

diately after the first copious evacuations by bleeding and purging; and, in every instance, as the salivation came on, the disease abated.

Coinciding in sentiment respecting the use of mercury, so as to produce a salivation, we with pleasure mention the learned Dr. Rush of Philadelphia. But the method is more explicitly and highly recommended by James Clark, M.D. F.R.S.E. in a treatise on the yellow fever, as it appeared in the island of Dominica, in the years 1790, 94, 95, and 96.

The Doctor recommends the free use of mercury, both as a remedy and preventative; and says, "the officers of the army and navy, who have leisure and can be prevailed upon, on their arrival in the West Indies, to undergo one or two courses of mercury, take a few laxative medicines, after confining themselves to a moderate use of wine, and living chiefly on vegetables and fruits for the first two months after their arrival, may rely, almost to a certainty, on escaping the fever.

ISAAC RAND.

JOHN WARREN.

On

*On the Use of Oil of Tobacco in the Cure of Cancers ; in a letter  
from Rev. ZEPHANIAH WILLIS, of Kingston, to Rev. JO-  
SEPH WILLARD, D.D. L.L.D. F.A.A.*

*Kingston, January 13th, 1786.*

REV. SIR,

AS every discovery tending to the cure of cancers may be of importance, especially to those who have the misfortune to be visited with this dreadful disease, the following cure may possibly be deemed worthy of notice.

Jonathan Holmes, of this town, is aged 77, descended from a family which has been remarkably subject to cancers. About 25 years since, an eruption appeared near the outer corner of his left eye, which continued to increase till it appeared to be a confirmed cancer. He made application to a French surgeon then in the country, who professed skill in such cases, and had it taken out ; and after submitting to a long and severe course of physic, appeared to have obtained a perfect cure.

About five years since, a similar eruption appeared under his right eye ; it continued to increase slowly, attended with the usual symptoms of a cancer, for about four years. During this period, he applied to a surgeon to have it extracted ; but being near the eye, he refused to operate, lest it should destroy his eye and hasten his dissolution. After this, it increased very fast, discharging a virulent humour, and having consider-

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ably

ably large excrescences, denoting it to be a cancer of the rose kind.

That fondness for life which is natural to all, and the dread of falling a sacrifice by this most terrible of all executioners, together with some hints received upon the subject, prompted him to try the following experiment. Being himself a smoker of tobacco, he practiced filling his pipe with strong tobacco and smoking it part out, applied a thin linen rag over the top of the bowl, and putting it to his mouth, blew the smoke through the stem ; by which a small quantity of oil was expelled with the smoke. By repeatedly blowing, a considerable number of drops of this oil were easily collected, which he applied to the cancer, both with his finger and by wetting lint with it and laying it on. This oil being of a very pungent nature, caused a very strong sensation. But a very few applications produced an evident alteration for the better. He continued the application morning and evening, and at other convenient seasons, attended with similar effects, for six weeks or two months ; at the expiration of which, the cancer was entirely healed, with a very little scar remaining.

In the first experiment which he made to extract the oil, which was with a new pipe, he found that the oil was almost wholly absorbed by the stem. To prevent this, breaking off the stem, he joined a wooden one, perforated in the same manner : this he found did not absorb the oil, and that with a very little trouble a sufficient quantity was obtained.

*On the Use of the Oil of Tobacco, in the Cure of Cancers.* 139

Whether this simple case be worth communicating, is humbly submitted by your

most obedient,

respectful servant,

**ZEPHANIAH WILLIS.**

*The Rev. Joseph Willard, D.D.*

**APPENDIX.**

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## A P P E N D I X.

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### COUNT RUMFORD'S DONATION.

SIR,

**D**ESIROUS of contributing efficaciously to the advancement of a branch of science, which has long employed my attention, and which appears to me to be of the highest importance to mankind ; and wishing at the same time to leave a lasting testimony of my respect for the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, I take the liberty to request that the Academy would do me the honor to accept of five thousand dollars, three per cent stock, in the funds of the United States of North America, which stock I have actually purchased, and which I beg leave to transfer to the Fellows of the Academy, to the end that the interest of the same may be by them, and by their successors, received from time to time, for ever, and the amount of the same applied and given, once every second year, as a premium to the author of the most important discovery, or useful improvement, which shall be made and published by printing, or in any way made known to the public, in any part of the continent of America, or in any of the American islands, during the preceding two years, on heat, or on light, the preference always being given  
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to such discoveries as shall, in the opinion of the Academy, tend most to promote the good of mankind.

With regard to the formalities to be observed by the Academy in their decisions upon the comparative merits of those discoveries, which, in the opinion of the Academy, may entitle their authors to be considered as competitors for this biennial premium, the Academy will be pleased to adopt such regulations, as they in their wisdom may judge to be proper and necessary. But in regard to the form in which this premium is conferred, I take the liberty to request that it may always be given in two medals, struck in the same dye, the one of gold, and the other of silver, and of such dimensions, that both of them together may be just equal in intrinsic value, to the amount of the interest of the aforesaid five thousand dollars stock, during two years ; that is to say, that they may together be of the value of three hundred dollars.

The Academy will be pleased to order such device or inscription to be engraved on the dye they shall cause to be prepared for striking these medals, as they may judge proper.

If during any term of two years, reckoning from the last adjudication, or from the last period for the adjudication of this premium by the Academy, no new discovery or improvement should be made, in any part of America, relative to either of the subjects in question, (heat, or light,) which in the opinion of the Academy, shall be of sufficient importance to deserve this premium ; in that case, it is my desire that the premium  
may

may not be given, but that the value of it may be reserved, and being laid out in the purchase of additional stock in the American funds, may be employed to augment the capital of this premium; and that the interest of the sums by which the capital may from time to time be so augmented, may regularly be given in money, with the two medals, and as an addition to the original premium, at each succeeding adjudication of it. And it is further my particular request, that those additions to the value of the premium arising from its occasional non-adjudications may be suffered to increase without limitation.

With the highest respect for the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and the most earnest wishes for their success in their labours for the good of mankind,

I have the honor to be, with much esteem and regard,

Sir,

Your most obedient,

humble servant,

RUMFORD.

London, July 12th, 1796.

To the Hon. JOHN ADAMS, Esq. President of }  
the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. }

Vote

*Vote of Thanks to Count RUMFORD.*

AT a meeting of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, at Boston, May 29, 1798.

Whereas Benjamin Count of Rumford of Munich, in Bavaria, has presented to this Institution, the sum of five thousand dollars in the three per cent stock of the United States, the interest of which, by the terms of the donation, as expressed in his letter of July 26, 1796, to the president of the Academy, is to be "applied and given once every second year, as a premium to the author of the most important discovery or improvement which shall be made and published by printing, or in any way made known to the public, in any part of the continent of America, or in any of the American Islands, during the preceding two years, on *Heat*, or on *Light*:" which donation has been accepted by the Academy, and by proper certificates, which accident only has delayed,\* the said stock has now become the property of the Academy.

Voted, That the thanks of the Academy be presented to Count Rumford, for this his very generous donation, and that they experience the highest satisfaction in receiving this additional and very liberal aid for the encouragement and extension of those interesting branches of science, which he has specified as the objects of his gratuity, and which *he* has so successfully

\* The certificates of stock, and the power of attorney to make the transfer, were lost, in consequence of the capture of the vessel by which they were sent.

successfully cultivated : That they entertain a high sense of the sentiments and views, so becoming a philosopher, which have prompted him to this distinguished act of liberality ; and in the execution of the grateful office, which they have undertaken, of awarding and distributing the premium which Count Rumford has thus appropriated, they will sacredly comply with the conditions of the donation ; indulging the hope, that he will meet his reward, in learning that many in his native country are thereby excited to emulate his labours, and to promote the accomplishment of his beneficent wishes for the advancement of science, and the augmentation of human happiness.

Voted, That the Corresponding Secretary be requested to transmit a copy of the preceding vote to Count Rumford by the earliest opportunity.

**A**T a meeting of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, May 26, 1801.

Voted, That the Academy at their meeting in May next and afterwards, biennially, at their May meeting, will decide on the discovery or improvement, which may appear to be entitled to the premium directed to be given by Count Rumford, according to the terms of his letter to the president of the Academy, dated July 12th, 1796.

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|      | Count Rumford's Essays, 6th and 7th Nos.  | } <i>The Author.</i>                                  |
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|      | Astronomical Tables and Observations, by Francis De Zach, L. L. D. 3 vols. 4to.   | } <i>The Author.</i>                                  |
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